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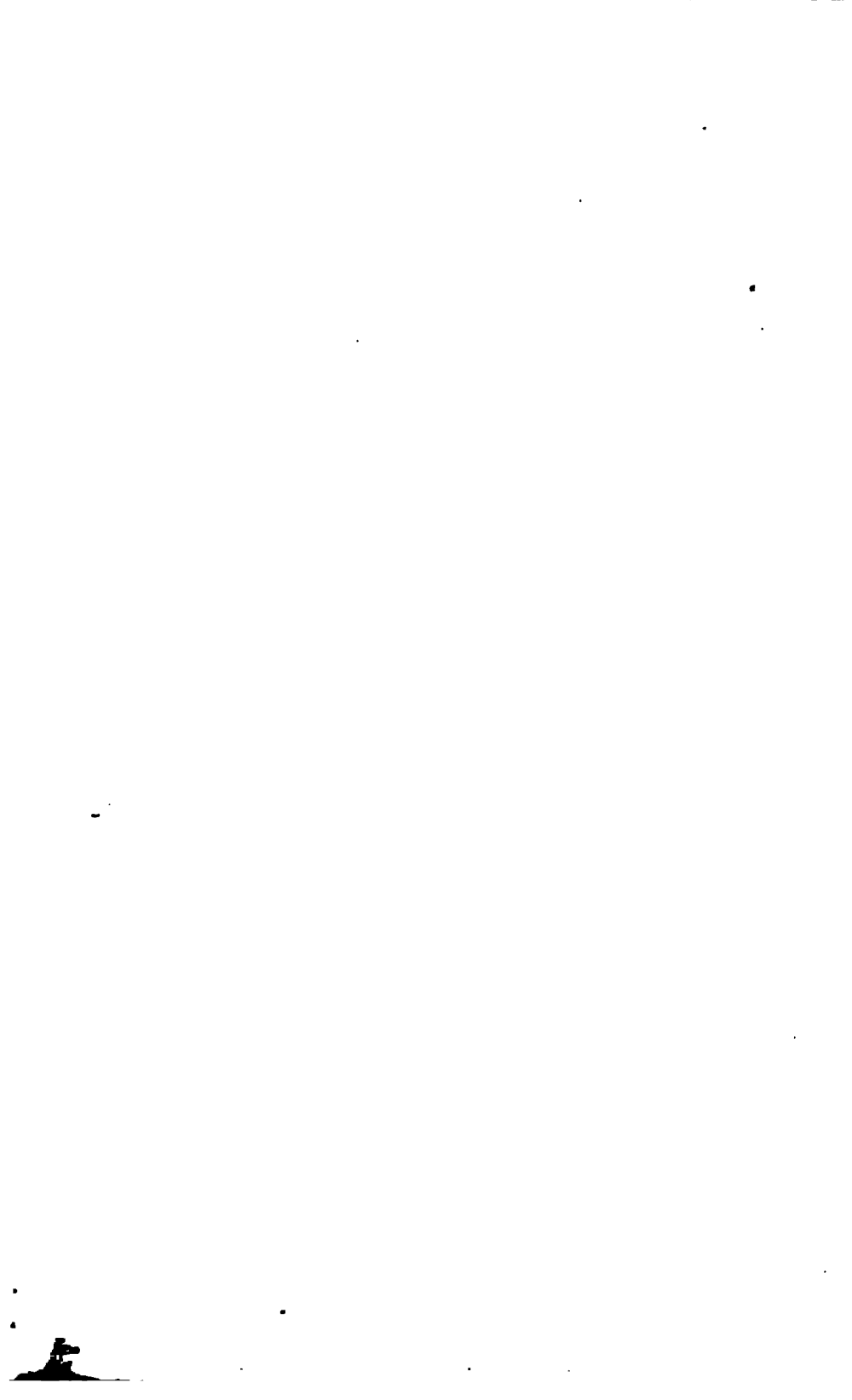

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THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

JULY, 1861.

COTTON AND COTTON MANUFACTURE.

I. Value of British Cotton Goods in 1860.—II. Progress of the Cotton Manufacture from 1836 to 1860.—III. Cotton Trade of Great Britain at Six Decennial Periods, and Weekly Consumption since 1847.—IV. Imports of Cotton into Great Britain, 1820–1859, from the United States, Brazil, Mediterranean, British East Indies, British West Indies, with the Annual Average Price of United States Uplands, Brazil and East India Surat Cotton.—V. Capacity of the Cotton Bale.—VI. Stock of Cotton at Liverpool, 1844–1860.—VII. The Chief Manufacturing Countries of Europe compared with the United States.—VIII. Cotton Manufacture of France.—IX. Holland and the Netherlands.—X. Labor and Wages in England.—XI. Spindles and Production in the United States.—XII. Exports of Cotton Manufactures from Great Britain, and Average Price of Goods, 1815–1860.

I. VALUE OF BRITISH COTTON GOODS.

We have before expressed the opinion, that the value of British manufactured goods exceeds annually four hundred and fifty millions of dollars; while the total cost of the raw material being only one hundred and fifty millions of dollars, (£34,550,000 sterling,) there is a resulting profit to England of three hundred millions of dollars, in round numbers. This is confirmed by a recent statement in Ure's *History of the Cotton Manufacture*, (London, H. G. Bohn, 1861,) where it is stated:

"The total cotton manufacture for home and foreign use, according to Mr. Poole, (*Statistics of British Commerce*,) may be reasonably assumed at twice the value of the raw material consumed. And this assumption is borne out by the estimate given upon the authority of Messrs. Du Fay & Co., of Manchester. Hence, as we paid more than £30,000,000 for the raw cotton we consumed in 1859, this would give an aggregate value of £90,000,000 for the cotton manufacture at present, including the price of both raw material and finished products.

"We know, from the official returns, that more than one-third of our entire exports in 1859 consisted of cotton. Besides which, there has to

be added the proportion of cotton which forms part of £12,000,000 more exported in the shape of mixed woollens, haberdashery, millinery, silks, apparel and slops. The home consumption of cottons, which a few years ago was calculated to average £25,000,000 annually, must have greatly increased, so as to bear a close approximation to the quantity exported, £48,000,000. The amount of actual capital invested in the cotton trade of the kingdom is believed to be now about £60,000,000 sterling."

II. RAPID PROGRESS OF THE COTTON MANUFACTURE IN ENGLAND.

In the year 1846, only fifteen years ago, the total value of British manufactured cottons was only forty-four millions sterling; whereas, in 1860, the value is officially reported at £92,013,000. The growth of these manufactures since the year 1836 is shown in the following tabular statement:

VALUE OF THE HOME AND EXPORT TRADE IN BRITISH MANUFACTURED COTTON GOODS, 1836–1860.

Years.	*Computed value of the cotton consumed.*	*Declared value of cotton manufactures exported.*	*Computed value of home consumption.*	*Total value of the British cotton manufacture.*
1836,.....	£15,081,011 ..	£24,632,058 ..	£19,059,600 ..	£43,691,658
1837,.....	10,777,351 ..	20,596,123 ..	15,505,018 ..	36,101,141
1838,.....	13,132,102 ..	24,147,726 ..	20,970,133 ..	45,117,859
1839,.....	12,692,165 ..	24,550,375 ..	11,951,943 ..	36,502,318
1840,.....	13,243,773 ..	24,668,618 ..	24,948,037 ..	49,616,655
1841,.....	12,089,309 ..	23,599,478 ..	16,244,807 ..	39,744,285
1842,.....	10,664,728 ..	21,679,348 ..	15,540,963 ..	37,220,311
1843,.....	11,382,861 ..	23,447,971 ..	19,822,940 ..	43,270,911
1844,.....	11,621,328 ..	25,805,348 ..	17,060,290 ..	42,865,638
1845,.....	11,400,319 ..	26,119,331 ..	20,868,763 ..	46,988,094
1846,.....	13,018,609 ..	25,599,826 ..	18,974,766 ..	44,574,592
1847,.....	13,004,679 ..	23,333,225 ..	13,113,489 ..	36,446,714
1848,.....	10,280,939 ..	22,681,200 ..	16,422,693 ..	39,103,893
1849,.....	13,859,999 ..	26,775,135 ..	16,666,441 ..	43,441,576
1850,.....	17,937,100 ..	28,257,401 ..	17,569,591 ..	45,826,992
1851,.....	16,225,429 ..	30,088,836 ..	18,210,520 ..	48,299,356
1852,.....	16,641,239 ..	29,878,087 ..	21,278,107 ..	51,256,194
1853,.....	18,425,879 ..	32,712,902 ..	22,860,293 ..	55,573,195
1854,.....	18,251,081 ..	31,745,857 ..	23,348,190 ..	55,094,047
1855,.....	19,619,888 ..	34,779,141 ..	19,957,379 ..	54,736,520
1856,.....	22,129,599 ..	38,232,741 ..	18,842,111 ..	57,074,852
1857,.....	25,925,228 ..	39,073,420 ..	21,084,283 ..	60,157,703
1858,.....	26,254,800 ..	43,001,322 ..	17,385,712 ..	60,387,034
1859,.....	27,530,774 ..	48,208,444 ..	23,164,770 ..	71,373,214
1860,.....	33,264,877 ..	52,013,482 ..	40,000,000 ..	92,013,482

III. COTTON TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN AT SIX DECENNIAL PERIODS.

There is a constantly increasing demand for cotton, not only for clothing, &c., arising from the growth of population and the diffusion of wealth, but also for admixture with wool, as well as in the manufacture of cordage, twine and sail-cloth, which are new branches of trade to which cotton has recently been applied. The production of cotton ought to increase much greater than the population; for as civilization and commerce extend, the number that will consume cotton fabrics, and the annual consumption of each person, by reason of the greater productive power, will extend in a still greater ratio. The following is the

COTTON TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN, SHOWING THE SOURCES OF SUPPLY IN DECENNIAL PERIODS.

	1806.	1816.	1826.	1836.	1846.	1856.
American,....	124,939 ..	166,077 ..	395,852 ..	764,707 ..	932,000 ..	1,758,295
Brazil,.....	51,034 ..	123,450 ..	55,590 ..	148,715 ..	84,000 ..	122,411
Egyptian,....	.... ..	.... ..	47,261 ..	34,953 ..	59,600 ..	111,960
East Indies,...	7,787 ..	37,670 ..	64,699 ..	219,193 ..	49,500 ..	463,932
West Indies,..	77,978 ..	42,235 ..	18,188 ..	33,506 ..	9,000 ..	11,320
Bales,.....	261,738 ..	369,432 ..	581,590 ..	1,201,074 ..	1,134,100 ..	2,467,918

The cotton manufacture has been everywhere extending in the past quarter of a century, and consumption steadily gaining upon production. The weekly deliveries of cotton for consumption from the stocks warehoused in British ports have nearly doubled in the last ten years. In 1847 the consumption was but 20,259 bales per week; in 1859 it averaged 46,699 bales weekly. The consumption in the United States in 1847 was 427,967 bales; in 1857 it was 702,138 bales. The quantity of cotton taken for *consumption* in the United Kingdom has been as follows:*

				BALES OF 400 LBS.	
				Year.	*Week.*
1847,.....	1,105,998	bales of	381 lbs. ..	1,053,492 ..	20,259
1848,.....	1,505,331	"	393 " ..	1,479,294 ..	28,448
1849,.....	1,586,608	"	395 " ..	1,568,861 ..	30,170
1850,.....	1,513,007	"	386 " ..	1,461,176 ..	28,100
1851,.....	1,662,585	"	390 " ..	1,622,566 ..	31,203
1852,.....	1,911,558	"	393 " ..	1,875,002 ..	36,058
1853,.....	1,854,610	"	396 " ..	1,837,287 ..	35,533
1854,.....	1,949,327	"	401 " ..	1,954,355 ..	37,583
1855,.....	2,099,298	"	398 " ..	2,085,766 ..	49,111
1856,.....	2,263,899	"	407 " ..	2,303,764 ..	44,303
1857,.....	1,960,566	"	401 " ..	1,962,829 ..	37,749
1858,.....	2,174,559	"	412 " ..	2,241,785 ..	43,111
1859,.....	2,294,310	"	423 " ..	2,428,358 ..	46,699

REVIEW OF COTTON AND SPINDLES.

	No. of persons employed in cotton mills.	*Increase.*	*Cotton consumed.*	*Increase.*	*Average consumption of cotton per head.*	*No. of spindles.*	*Average weight of cotton consumed annually per spindle.*
			lbs.	lbs.	lbs.		lbs.
1856 ..	379,213 ..	.... ..	891,400,000 ..	.... ..	2,351 ..	28,010,217 ..	31¾
1859 ..	415,423 ..	36,210 ..	976,600,000 ..	85,200,000 ..	" ..	30,759,368 ..	"
1860 ..	446,999 ..	31,576 ..	1,050,895,000 ..	74,295,000 ..	" ..	33,099,056 ..	"

* URE's History, Vol. II., p. 375.

STATISTICAL HISTORY OF THE COTTON TRADE,

(*Commencing at the Peace of* 1815.)

SHOWING THE EXPORTS OF COTTON MANUFACTURES AND YARNS, (EXCLUSIVE OF LACE, HOSIERY AND THREAD,) AS COMPARED WITH THE TOTAL EXPORTS; THE AVERAGE PRICE OF GOODS PER YARD AND YARN PER LB., AS COMPARED WITH THE PRICE OF COTTON IN EACH YEAR.

Years.	*Total British exports of all descriptions.*	*Exports of cotton manufactures and yarn.*	Cotton Manufactures.			*Average price of boxed cotton at close of year.*	Cotton Yarn.			*Average price of boxed cotton at close of year.*
			Quantity.	*Real value.*	*Average per yard.*		*Quantity.*	*Real value.*	*Average per lb.*	
	£	£	Yds.	£	d.	d.	lbs.	£	d.	d.
1815	49,653,245	19,822,193	252,884,029	18,158,172	17¼	21¼	9,241,548	1,674,021	43⅝	21¼
1816	40,328,940	14,937,527	189,263,731	12,309,079	15⅝	18½	15,740,675	2,628,448	40	18½
1817	40,349,235	15,489,715	236,987,669	13,475,534	13⅝	20½	12,717,382	2,014,181	38	20½
1818	45,180,150	18,103,487	255,321,695	15,708,183	14⅝	20½	14,743,675	2,395,304	38⅞	20½
1819	34,252,251	14,234,290	202,514,682	11,714,507	15½	13½	18,085,410	2,519,783	33⅝	13½
1820	35,569,077	16,035,643	350,956,541	13,209,000	9	11½	23,032,325	2,826,643	29⅝	11½
1821	35,523,127	15,498,734	266,495,901	13,192,904	11⅞	9½	21,526,469	2,305,830	25⅝	9½
1822	36,176,897	16,551,544	304,379,691	13,853,954	10⅜	8½	26,595,468	2,697,590	24½	8½
1823	34,589,410	15,606,591	301,816,254	12,980,644	11⅛	8½	27,378,986	2,625,947	23⅛	8½
1824	37,600,021	17,579,651	344,651,133	14,444,255	9⅝	8½	34,605,510	3,135,396	21⅝	8½
1825	38,077,330	17,439,739	336,466,698	14,233,010	10⅛	11⅛	32,641,604	3,206,729	23½	11⅛
1826	30,847,528	13,357,961	267,060,534	9,866,623	8⅞	6⅝	42,179,521	3,491,338	19⅝	6⅝
1827	37,181,335	16,493,613	365,492,804	12,948,035	8½	6½	44,878,774	3,545,578	18⅞	6½
1828	36,812,756	16,078,654	363,328,431	12,483,249	7½	6⅜	50,506,751	3,595,405	17⅝	6⅜
1829	35,842,623	16,493,121	402,517,196	12,516,247	7⅜	5⅝	61,441,251	3,976,874	15½	5⅝
1830	38,271,597	18,253,511	444,578,498	14,119,770	7⅜	6⅞	64,645,342	4,133,741	15½	6⅞
1831	37,164,372	16,111,532	421,385,303	12,136,513	6⅞	6	63,821,440	3,975,019	14⅞	6

1832	..	36,450,594	..	16,223,389	..	461,045,503	..	11,500,630	..	5⅛	..	6⅝	..	75,667,150	..	4,722,759	..	14⅛	..	6⅝
1833	..	39,667,847	..	17,155,084	..	496,352,096	..	12,451,060	..	6	..	8¼	..	70,626,168	..	4,704,024	..	15⅞	..	8¼
1834	..	41,649,191	..	19,338,367	..	555,705,899	..	14,127,352	..	6 1-16	..	8⅜	..	76,478,468	..	5,211,015	..	16⅛	..	8⅜
1835	..	47,372,270	..	20,888,020	..	557,515,701	..	15,181,431	.	6¼	..	10½	..	83,214,198	..	5,706,589	..	16⅜	..	10½
1836	..	53,368,572	..	23,303,533	..	637,667,627	..	17,183,167	..	6⅜	..	9⅞	..	88,191,046	..	6,120,366	..	16⅜	..	9⅞
1837	..	42,070,744	..	19,683,931	..	531,373,663	..	12,727,989	..	5¾	..	7	..	103,455,138	..	6,955,942	..	16⅛	..	7
1838	..	50,060,970	..	22,986,602	..	690,077,622	..	15,544,733	..	5¾	..	7	..	114,596,602	..	7,431,869	..	15⅛	..	7
1839	..	53,233,580	..	23,236,638	..	731,450,123	..	16,378,445	..	5 5-16	..	7⅞	..	105,686,442	..	6,858,193	..	15⅛	..	7⅞
1840	..	51,406,430	..	23,403,528	..	790,631,997	..	16,302,220	..	4 15-16	..	6	..	118,470,228	..	7,101,308	..	14⅜	..	6
1841	..	51,634,623	..	22,252,778	..	751,125,624	..	14,985,810	..	4¾	..	6½	..	123,226,519	..	7,266,968	..	14⅛	..	6½
1842	..	47,381,023	..	20,658,684	..	734,098,809	..	12,887,220	..	4 3-16	..	5⅝	..	137,466,892	..	7,771,464	..	13⅛	..	5⅝
1843	..	52,279,709	..	22,362,435	..	918,040,205	..	15,168,464	..	3 15-16	..	4⅜	..	140,321,176	..	7,193,971	..	12½	..	4⅜
1844	..	58,584,292	..	24,600,730	..	1,046,670,823	..	17,612,146	..	3 15-16	..	4⅞	..	138,540,079	..	6,988,584	..	12	..	4⅞
1845	..	60,111,082	..	24,993,843	..	1,091,686,069	..	18,030,608	..	3 15-16	..	4⅜	..	135,144,865	..	6,963,235	..	12½	..	4⅜
1846	..	57,786,876	..	24,583,680	..	1,065,460,589	..	16,701,632	..	3¾	..	4⅞	..	160,554,678	..	7,882,048	..	11¾	..	4⅞
1847	..	58,842,377	..	22,165,083	..	942,540,160	..	16,207,103	..	4⅛	..	6⅜	..	119,489,554	..	5,957,980	..	11⅛	..	6⅜
1848	..	54,849,445	..	21,638,688	..	1,096,751,823	..	15,710,857	..	3 7-16	..	4½	..	135,831,162	..	5,927,831	..	10⅜	..	4½
1849	..	63,596,025	..	26,775,135	..	1,337,536,116	..	20,071,046	..	3 9-16	..	5⅛	..	148,275,885	..	6,704,089	..	10⅜	..	5⅛
1850	..	71,367,885	..	28,257,401	..	1,358,182,941	..	21,873,697	..	3 13-16	..	7⅛	..	124,241,100	..	6,383,704	..	12½	..	7⅛
1851	..	74,448,722	..	30,088,836	..	1,543,161,789	..	23,454,810	..	3 9-16	..	5⅜	..	131,587,577	..	6,634,026	..	12	..	5⅜
1852	..	78,076,854	..	29,878,087	..	1,524,256,914	..	23,223,432	..	3⅜	..	5⅝	..	129,385,924	..	6,654,655	..	12½	..	5⅝
1853	..	98,933,781	..	32,712,902	..	1,594,591,659	..	25,817,249	..	3⅞	..	5⅜	..	129,190,507	..	6,895,653	..	12¼	..	5⅜
1854	..	97,184,726	..	30,101,030	..	1,690,553,209	..	23,409,700	..	3 3-16	..	5⅝	..	147,128,498	..	6,691,330	..	10⅞	..	5⅝
1855	..	95,688,085	..	33,247,592	..	1,935,180,506	..	26,047,197	..	3 3-16	..	5¾	..	165,493,598	..	7,200,395	..	10⅜	..	5¾
1856	..	115,826,948	..	36,446,118	..	2,031,282,913	..	28,417,543	..	3½	..	6	..	181,495,805	..	8,028,575	..	10	..	6
1857	..	122,066,107	..	37,342,929	..	1,974,283,869	..	28,642,340	..	3 7-16	..	7¼	..	176,821,338	..	8,700,589	..	11¼	..	7¼
1858	..	116,608,756	..	41,537,354	..	2,321,540,622	..	31,957,875	..	3½	..	6½	..	200,016,902	..	9,579,479	..	11⅜	..	6½
1859	..	130,411,529	..	46,496,650	..	2,562,545,476	..	37,038,538	..	3 7-16	..	6½	..	192,206,643	..	9,458,112	..	11¼	..	6½
1860	..	135,842,817	..	50,217,892	..	2,775,450,905	..	40,342,819	..	3½	..	7¼	..	197,364,947	..	9,875,073	..	12	..	7¼

IV. THE IMPORT OF COTTON INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

The progress of the cotton culture throughout the world, as shown by the importations into Great Britain, is curious. The imports from the United States have increased from eighty-nine millions of pounds, in the year 1820, to nine hundred and sixty millions, in 1859; while from Brazil, the imports in 1859 were less than in 1820; from the Mediterranean, (Egypt mainly,) it has increased from one million to thirty-eight millions of pounds; from the British East Indies, from twenty-three millions to two hundred and fifty millions; from other countries, from two to ten millions; while from the British West Indies the product has declined from ten millions of pounds to less than half a million. The extraordinary fluctuations in this history are demonstrated in the following table, showing, 1. The imports in pounds from the United States; 2. From Brazil; 3. From the Mediterranean; 4. From the British East Indies; 5. From the British West Indies and British Guiana; 6. From all other sources, for each year, from 1820 to 1860. This history is rendered more interesting by the addition of the annual average prices of three qualities of cotton in the British market during this long period. The comparative real values of these exports were not fully recorded until the year 1854, since when they amounted as follow:

1854,.....	£20,175,000	1857,.....	£29,288,000
1855,.....	20,848,000	1858,.....	30,106,000
1856,.....	26,448,000	1859,.....	34,559,000

TABLE SHOWING THE QUANTITY AND VALUE OF RAW COTTON IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM FROM EACH SOURCE, WITH THE ANNUAL AVERAGE PRICE OF UNITED STATES UPLANDS, BRAZILIAN AND PERNAMBUCO, AND EAST INDIA SURAT COTTON, IN THE LIVERPOOL MARKET, SINCE 1820.

Years.	*United States.*	*Brazil.*	*Mediterranean.*	*British East Indies.*	*British West Indies.*	*Other countries.*	*Grand total—quantities.*		Annual Average Price. *Uplands.*	*Brazil.*	*Surat.*
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	tons.	at p. lb.	at p. lb.	at p. lb.
1820 ..	89,999,174 ..	29,198,155 ..	472,684 ..	23,125,825 ..	6,836,816 ..	2,040,001 ..	151,672,655 ..	67,711 ..	11½d. ..	15½d. ..	8½d.
1821 ..	93,470,745 ..	19,535,786 ..	1,131,567 ..	8,827,107 ..	7,138,980 ..	2,432,435 ..	132,536,620 ..	59,168 ..	9½ ..	12⅝ ..	9⅞
1822 ..	101,031,766 ..	24,705,206 ..	518,804 ..	4,554,225 ..	10,295,114 ..	1,732,513 ..	142,837,628 ..	63,767 ..	8¼ ..	11⅛ ..	6⅞
1823 ..	142,532,112 ..	53,514,641 ..	1,492,413 ..	14,839,117 ..	7,034,793 ..	1,989,427 ..	191,402,503 ..	85,448 ..	8½ ..	12 ..	6¾
1824 ..	92,187,662 ..	24,849,552 ..	8,699,924 ..	16,420,005 ..	6,269,306 ..	953,673 ..	149,380,125 ..	66,688 ..	8¼ ..	11⅜ ..	6⅝
1825 ..	139,908,699 ..	33,180,491 ..	22,698,075 ..	20,005,872 ..	8,193,948 ..	4,018,206 ..	228,005,291 ..	101,788 ..	11⅜ ..	15⅛ ..	6⅞
1826 ..	130,858,203 ..	9,871,092 ..	10,308,617 ..	20,985,135 ..	4,751,070 ..	833,284 ..	177,607,401 ..	79,289 ..	6¾ ..	10⅛ ..	5⅛

1827 ..	216,924,812 ..	20,716,162 ..	5,372,562 ..	20,930,542 ..	7,165,881 ..	1,338,950 ..	272,448,909 ..	121,629 ..	6½ ..	9⅝ .. 5½
1828 ..	151,752,289 ..	29,143,279 ..	7,039,574 ..	32,187,901 ..	5,893,800 ..	1,743,799 ..	227,760,642 ..	101,679 ..	8⅜ ..	8⅝ .. 4⅝
1829 ..	157,187,396 ..	28,878,386 ..	6,049,597 ..	24,857,800 ..	4,640,414 ..	1,153,818 ..	222,767,411 ..	99,449 ..	5⅝ ..	7½ .. 4
1830 ..	210,885,358 ..	33,092,072 ..	3,428,798 ..	12,481,761 ..	3,429,247 ..	644,216 ..	263,961,452 ..	117,840 ..	6½ ..	8½ .. 5
1831 ..	219,333,628 ..	81,695,761 ..	8,460,559 ..	25,805,153 ..	2,401,685 ..	978,067 ..	288,674,853 ..	128,873 ..	6 ..	7⅝ .. 4⅝
1832 ..	219,756,753 ..	20,109,560 ..	9,163,692 ..	35,178,625 ..	2,040,428 ..	583,467 ..	286,832,525 ..	128,050 ..	6⅝ ..	9 .. 5
1833 ..	237,506,758 ..	28,463,821 ..	1,020,268 ..	32,755,164 ..	2,084,862 ..	1,825,964 ..	303,656,837 ..	135,561 ..	8½ ..	10⅛ .. 6½
1834 ..	269,203,075 ..	19,291,396 ..	1,681,625 ..	32,920,865 ..	2,293,794 ..	1,484,670 ..	326,875,425 ..	145,927 ..	8⅝ ..	11⅞ .. 6⅝
1835 ..	284,455,812 ..	24,986,409 ..	8,451,630 ..	41,429,011 ..	1,815,270 ..	2,564,831 ..	363,702,963 ..	162,367 ..	10½ ..	14½ .. 7½
1836 ..	289,615,692 ..	27,501,272 ..	8,226,029 ..	75,949,845 ..	1,714,337 ..	3,951,882 ..	406,959,057 ..	181,678 ..	9⅞ ..	12⅞ .. 6⅝
1837 ..	320,651,716 ..	20,940,145 ..	9,326,979 ..	51,532,072 ..	1,595,702 ..	3,240,169 ..	407,286,783 ..	181,824 ..	7 ..	9⅝ .. 4⅞
1838 ..	431,437,888 ..	24,464,505 ..	6,409,466 ..	40,217,734 ..	1,529,356 ..	3,791,628 ..	507,850,577 ..	226,719 ..	7 ..	9⅝ .. 5
1839 ..	311,597,798 ..	16,971,979 ..	6,429,671 ..	47,172,939 ..	1,248,164 ..	5,976,008 ..	389,396,559 ..	173,838 ..	7⅞ ..	10 .. 5½
1840 ..	487,856,504 ..	14,779,171 ..	8,324,937 ..	77,611,839 ..	866,157 ..	3,649,402 ..	592,488,010 ..	264,504 ..	6 ..	9½ .. 4⅝
1841 ..	358,240,964 ..	16,671,348 ..	9,097,180 ..	97,388,153 ..	1,533,197 ..	5,061,513 ..	487,992,355 ..	217,854 ..	6½ ..	8⅝ .. 4⅝
1842 ..	414,030,779 ..	15,222,828 ..	4,489,017 ..	92,972,609 ..	593,603 ..	4,441,250 ..	531,750,086 ..	237,388 ..	5⅝ ..	7½ .. 4
1843 ..	574,738,520 ..	18,675,123 ..	9,674,076 ..	65,709,729 ..	1,260,444 ..	3,135,224 ..	673,193,116 ..	300,533 ..	4⅝ ..	6⅝ .. 3⅝
1844 ..	517,218,622 ..	21,084,744 ..	12,406,327 ..	88,639,776 ..	1,707,194 ..	3,054,641 ..	646,111,304 ..	288,443 ..	4⅞ ..	6⅝ .. 3⅝
1845 ..	626,650,412 ..	20,157,633 ..	14,614,699 ..	58,437,426 ..	1,394,447 ..	725,336 ..	721,979,953 ..	322,312 ..	4⅝ ..	6⅝ .. 3
1846 ..	401,949,393 ..	14,746,321 ..	14,278,447 ..	34,540,143 ..	1,201,857 ..	1,140,113 ..	467,856,274 ..	208,864 ..	4⅞ ..	7⅛ .. 3⅝
1847 ..	364,599,291 ..	19,966,922 ..	4,814,268 ..	83,934,614 ..	793,933 ..	598,587 ..	474,707,615 ..	211,923 ..	6⅝ ..	7⅛ .. 4½
1848 ..	600,247,488 ..	19,971,378 ..	7,231,861 ..	84,101,961 ..	640,437 ..	827,036 ..	713,020,161 ..	318,313 ..	4½ ..	6 .. 3½
1849 ..	634,504,050 ..	30,738,133 ..	17,369,843 ..	70,838,515 ..	944,307 ..	1,074,164 ..	755,469,012 ..	337,263 ..	5½ ..	5½ .. 3⅝
1850 ..	493,153,112 ..	30,299,982 ..	18,931,414 ..	118,872,742 ..	228,913 ..	2,090,698 ..	663,576,861 ..	296,239 ..	7½ ..	7⅞ .. 5½
1851 ..	596,638,962 ..	19,339,104 ..	16,950,525 ..	122,626,976 ..	446,529 ..	1,377,653 ..	757,379,749 ..	338,116 ..	5⅝ ..	7½ .. 4
1852 ..	765,630,544 ..	26,506,144 ..	48,058,640 ..	84,922,432 ..	703,696 ..	3,960,992 ..	929,782,448 ..	415,081 ..	5⅝ ..	7 .. 3⅝
1853 ..	658,451,796 ..	24,190,628 ..	28,353,575 ..	181,848,160 ..	350,428 ..	2,084,162 ..	895,278,749 ..	399,678 ..	5⅝ ..	7 .. 3½
1854 ..	722,151,346 ..	19,703,600 ..	23,503,003 ..	119,836,009 ..	409,110 ..	1,730,081 ..	887,333,149 ..	396,131 ..	5⅝ ..	7 .. 3½
1855 ..	681,629,424 ..	24,577,952 ..	32,904,153 ..	145,179,216 ..	468,452 ..	6,992,755 ..	891,751,952 ..	398,104 ..	5⅝ ..	7 .. 3⅝
1856 ..	780,040,016 ..	21,830,704 ..	34,616,848 ..	180,496,624 ..	462,784 ..	6,439,328 ..	1,023,886,304 ..	457,092 ..	6 ..	7½ .. 4⅜
1857 ..	654,758,048 ..	29,910,832 ..	24,882,144 ..	250,338,144 ..	1,443,568 ..	7,986,160 ..	969,318,896 ..	432,732 ..	7½ ..	8⅜ .. 5⅜
1858 ..	833,237,776 ..	18,617,872 ..	38,248,112 ..	132,722,576 ..	367,808 ..	11,148,032 ..	1,084,342,176 ..	461,760 ..	6½ ..	8½ .. 4⅝
1859 ..	961,707,264 ..	22,478,960 ..	38,106,096 ..	192,330,880 ..	592,256 ..	10,773,616 ..	1,225,989,072 ..	547,317 ..	6½ ..	8⅝ .. 4½

Imports Cotton.—1781, 5,198,778 lbs.; 1791, 28,706,675 lbs.; 1801, 56,004,305 lbs.; 1811, 91,576,535 lbs.; 1821, 132,536,620 lbs.; 1831, 288,674,853 lbs.; 1841, 487,992,355 lbs.; 1851, 757,379,749 lbs.; 1859, 1,225,989,072 lbs.

V. CAPACITY OF THE COTTON BALE.

The smallest bales known to the trade are those of West Indies and Brazil, about 180 lbs., (formerly 200 to 210.) Those of Egypt have increased from 245 to 369 lbs.; East Indian has maintained a uniform weight of 380 to 387 lbs., and the United States from 418 to 447 lbs. In Mr. URE'S recent work it is stated that the commercial standard of quantity in the cotton trade is generally the bale. The weight of the bale, however, is by no means uniform. Indeed, scarcely any weight, measure or standard of capacity may be considered less so. It varies, from different causes, in different countries, and in different sections of the same country, at different periods, and according to the different kinds or qualities of the article. Improvements in pressing or packing, to diminish expense in bagging and freight, tend constantly to augment the weight of the bale. Thus, in 1790, the United States bale was computed at only 200 lbs. In 1824 the average weight of bales imported into Liverpool was 266 lbs.; but, increasing constantly, twelve years later the average was 319 lbs. M'CULLOCH, however, in 1832, considered 300 to 310 lbs. a fair average, and BURNS 310. At the same time the Upland cotton bale was estimated at 320 lbs., and the Sea Island at 280 lbs. According to PITKINS, the Egyptian bale weighed at one time but 90 lbs., though it now weighs more than three times as many. At the same period the Brazilian bale contained 180 lbs., though it now contains but 160 lbs.; while the West Indian bale weighed 350 lbs., and the Columbian bale 100 lbs., or the Spanish quintal. According to BURNS, the United States bale at Liverpool averaged 345 lbs., the Brazilian 180 lbs., the Egyptian 220 lbs., the West Indian 300 lbs., and the East Indian 330 lbs. At the Lowell factories, in 1831, according to PITKINS, the bale averaged 361 lbs. In 1836 the bale of the Atlantic Cotton States was estimated at 300 and 325 lbs., and that of the Gulf States at 400 and 450 lbs. In Liverpool, at the same time, the estimate for the bale of Upland or short staple cotton was 321 lbs., for Orleans and Alabama 402 lbs., for Sea Island 322 lbs., for Brazil 173 lbs., for Egyptian 218 lbs., for East Indian 360 lbs., and for West Indian 230 lbs.; while, according to BURNS, bales imported into France were computed at only 300 lbs. each. WATERSTON'S "*Manual of Commerce*," a reliable British publication, (1850,) gave the Virginia, Carolina, Georgia and West Indian bale at 300 to 310 lbs., that of New-Orleans and Alabama at 400 to 500 lbs., that of the East Indies at 320 to 360 lbs., that of Brazil at 160 to 200 lbs., that of Egypt at 180 to 280 lbs.

ALEXANDER'S "*Universal Dictionary of Weights and Measures*," published at Baltimore in 1850, gives the mean weight of the bale of Alabama, Louisiana and Mississippi at 500 lbs., that of Georgia at 375 lbs., and that of South Carolina at 362½ lbs. At Rio Janeiro the Brazil bale is estimated at 160 lbs. Prior to 1855, the United States "Commerce and Navigation" returns gave exports of cotton in pounds only. They are now given in bales as well as in pounds, the aggregate amount the year ending June 30, 1855, being 2,303,403 bales, or 1,008,424,601 lbs., the bale accordingly averaging about 438 lbs. Some bales, however, are evidently much heavier and some much lighter than this. For example, the 210,113,809 lbs. of cotton exported to France gives 446 lbs. to each of

the 470,293 bales, and the 955,114 lbs. exported to Austria gives 492 lbs. to each of the 1,939 bales; while the 7,527,079 lbs. exported to Mexico gives only 290 lbs. to each of the 25,917 bales in which they were contained.

In the great cotton marts of Liverpool and Havre, as in those of New-Orleans and Mobile, the article is almost invariably treated of by merchants, brokers and commercial men by the bale. Thus, a report on the trade of Liverpool gives the imports of cotton into Great Britain in 1852 at 2,357,338 bales. The aggregate of cotton imported that year is given, in the official report by the Board of Trade, at 929,782,448 lbs., the bales averaging, accordingly, 395 lbs. each.

In 1853 the cotton bales imported into Liverpool from North America averaged 435 lbs., from the East Indies 383 lbs., Brazil 180 lbs. The North American bale, as usually spoken of, implies a mean of 400 lbs. By reference to the figures given at page 3, it will be seen that there has been a gradual increase in the average weight of the bales of cotton received at Liverpool; for whilst the mean weight of all the bales in 1843 was 376 lbs., in 1847 it was 381 lbs., and in 1859 it reached as high as 423 lbs. Much more attention seems now to be paid to the packing and compression of the bales by screw presses.

The relative average weights and cubical contents of bales of cotton imported into Liverpool in 1850 were as follows:

Description of bales.	*Average weight in pounds.*	*Contents in cubic feet.*	*Description of bales.*	*Average weight in pounds.*	*Contents in cubic feet.*
Mobile,.....	504 ..	33	East Indian,.....	383 ..	15
New-Orleans,.....	455 ..	32	Egyptian,.....	245 ..	27
Upland,.....	390 ..	27	West Indian,.....	210 ..	25
Sea'Island,.....	383 ..	35	Brazilian,.....	182 ..	17

These figures show not only the great variety of bales that enter Liverpool, but that the most eligible form of bale is that of the East Indies, double the weight being packed within the same compass than in any other description of bale. Mr. J. A. MANN, in his recent work on the Cotton Trade of Great Britain, gives the following table, showing the average weight of each description of cotton bale imported annually into the United Kingdom since 1850:

Years.	*United States.*	*Brazil.*	*West India.*	*Egypt.*	*East India.*	*All kinds.*
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1850,.....	423 ..	182 ..	210 ..	245 ..	383 ..	392
1851,.....	425 ..	182 ..	210 ..	245 ..	384 ..	399
1852,.....	418 ..	180 ..	210 ..	250 ..	385 ..	392
1853,.....	425 ..	182 ..	210 ..	248 ..	380 ..	398
1854,.....	430 ..	182 ..	210 ..	295 ..	383 ..	408
1855,.....	422 ..	182 ..	210 ..	306 ..	383 ..	396
1856,.....	445 ..	181 ..	175 ..	308 ..	385 ..	414
1857,.....	443 ..	181 ..	175 ..	313 ..	387 ..	404
1858,.....	445 ..	181 ..	180 ..	355 ..	387 ..	420
1859,.....	447 ..	181 ..	180 ..	369 ..	385 ..	421

Taking the weight of a bale at 560 lbs., and supposing 1 lb. to produce 400 hanks, 1 hank to contain 840 yards, the whole quantity of cotton imported by Great Britain and her dependencies, during the year 1855, would produce two hundred and eighty-eight billions nine hundred and

eighty thousand seventy-nine millions three hundred and sixty thousand yards, or one billion one hundred and forty-one thousand nine hundred and thirty-two millions two hundred and sixty-nine thousand and ninety miles. If this thread were placed in a straight line, it would take a man two hundred and sixty-two millions two hundred and eighty-nine thousand four hundred and eighty-three years to walk from one end to the other, at the rate of twenty miles a day, Sundays excepted. It would encircle the globe sixty-five millions six hundred and seventy thousand two hundred and ninety times. It would reach more than seventeen thousand two hundred and eighty-three times the distance between the earth and the sun. Again, supposing a man to weigh 140 lbs., the cotton imported would weigh as much as six millions one hundred and forty-three thousand two hundred and eighty-four men. Let a man work eight hours a day, Sundays excepted, and measure twenty yards a minute, it would take him above one thousand and seventy-four million seven hundred and seventy-nine thousand four hundred and sixty-six times the age allotted to man by the Royal Psalmist.

At the London Exhibition, one manufacturer furnished samples of a pound of cotton spun into 900 hanks of 840 yards each, making about 450 miles. Another firm exhibited 420 hanks of the same number of yards each, making 2,000 miles from a single pound of cotton. The above amount, multiplied only by 410, the length of thread that a single cop of cotton could make, gives 607,000,000,000 of miles, or sufficient for a stout web of calico a yard wide, and containing 85 threads to the inch—more than enough to reach from us to the sun.

VI. STOCK OF COTTON IN LIVERPOOL, 1844–1860.

The largest stock of cotton on hand in Liverpool, in any year, from 1844 to 1860, was 1,057,375 bales in 1845, and 1,015,868 bales in April, 1860. The following table gives the day in each year, from 1844 to 1860, on which there was the largest stock of cotton in Liverpool:

Year.	*Date.*	*No. Bales.*	*Year.*	*Date.*	*No. Bales.*
1844,.....	July 12,.....	998,405	1853,.....	July 15,.....	879,650
1845,.....	August 1,.....	1,057,375	1854,.....	July 21,.....	970,107
1846,.....	January 16,.....	894,838	1855,.....	April 20,.....	666,688
1847,.....	April 20,.....	539,719	1856,.....	August 15,.....	813,266
1848,.....	June 30,.....	657,750	1857,.....	May 29,.....	693,509
1849,.....	July 6,.....	752,480	1858,.....	June 11,.....	678,636
1850,.....	April 12,.....	571,166	1859,.....	June 24,.....	754,109
1851,.....	July 18,.....	735,497	1860,.....	April 20,.....	1,015,868
1852,.....	July 23,.....	694,794			

In April, 1861, the stock on hand at Liverpool was 884,000 bales; April, 1860, 955,000 bales.

VII. THE COTTON MANUFACTURING DISTRICTS OF EUROPE.

The following is a comparative estimate of the quantities of raw cotton consumed in the chief manufacturing countries, from 1837 to 1858, in millions of pounds weight:

Countries.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.
Great Britain,	369	435	362	473	422	462	531	543	597	604	425
Russia, Germany, Holland and Belgium,	58	61	48	72	65	78	82	86	96	97	105
France, (including adjacent countries,)	121	133	110	157	154	163	152	146	158	159	126
Spain,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Countries bordering on the Adriatic,	32	26	26	28	29	38	44	26	38	39	31
United States of North America,	82	92	103	111	115	105	131	143	158	175	175
Sundries, Mediterranean, &c.,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total,	662	747	649	841	785	846	940	944	1,047	1,074	862

Countries.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.
Great Britain,	591	627	584	648	745	734	780	835	920	786	896
Russia, Germany, Holland and Belgium,	112	160	133	118	172	185	190	144	256	210	230
France, (including adjacent countries,)	127	186	142	149	199	194	201	190	211	220	240
Spain,	..	..	29	34	44	42	43	45	48	60	67
Countries bordering on the Adriatic,	29	47	45	45	55	45	45	39	39	56	50
United States of North America,	209	205	188	158	287	265	243	236	265	320	238
Sundries, Mediterranean, &c.,	..	..	..	..	23	29	33	37	69	56	40	60
Total,	1,068	1,225	1,182	1,175	1,481	1,503	1,589	1,558	1,795	1,602	1,781

VIII. COTTON MANUFACTURES OF FRANCE.

The annual "*Commercial Revue*," of Havre, gives the number of bales of cotton imported into France in the year 1852 at 462,000, in round numbers. The "*Tableau General*" states the imports at 188,917,099 lbs.; the bales averaging, accordingly, about 409 lbs each. The following table, compiled from the Havre "*Commercial Revue*" for 1855, shows the quantities of cotton, in bales, imported into France, and the countries whence imported, for a period of five years, from 1851 to 1855, both inclusive:

Years.	*United States.* bales.	*Brazil.* bales.	*Egypt.* bales.	*Elsewhere.* bales.	*All countries.* bales.
1851	295,400	7,700	18,500	38,000	359,600
1852	392,700	6,000	36,700	26,900	462,300
1853	389,000	2,800	33,000	29,200	454,000
1854	403,300	2,000	21,400	16,300	470,000
1855	418,600	2,500	30,700	11,800	463,000

Estimating the bale at 400 lbs., we have the following result, some of the figures of which, contrasted with those derived from official sources, present striking discrepancies:

Tabular Comparative Statement, showing the quantities of Cotton, in round numbers, imported into France, and the countries whence imported, for a period of five years, from 1851 *to* 1855, *both inclusive.*

Years.	*United States.* lbs.	*Brazil.* lbs.	*Egypt.* lbs.	*Elsewhere.* lbs.	*All countries.* lbs.
1851	118,160,000	3,080,000	7,400,000	15,200,000	143,840,000
1852	157,080,000	2,400,000	14,680,000	10,760,000	104,920,000
1853	155,600,000	1,120,000	13,200,000	11,680,000	181,600,000
1854	172,120,000	800,000	8,560,000	6,520,000	188,000,000
1855	167,440,000	1,000,000	12,280,000	4,720,000	185,440,000
Aggreg.,	770,400,000	8,400,000	56,120,000	48,880,000	803,800,000
Average,	154,080,000	1,680,000	11,224,000	9,776,000	160,760,000

IX. THE NETHERLANDS AND HOLLAND.

The Netherlands.—In 1859, the quantity of cotton submitted by the Netherlands Trading Company to public competition consisted of 20,834 bales of American and 7,583 bales of East India cotton, against 15,232 and 14,620 bales respectively in 1859. The total imports into Holland in 1859 comprised 101,197 bales of all descriptions, and the stock in first hands on the 1st of January, 1860, amounted to 6,959 bales.

The company brought to market at Rotterdam, during 1858,

4,909 bales	New-Orleans,	11,203 bales	Surat,
1,358 "	Mobile,	1,417 "	Tinnevelly,
8,965 "	Georgia,		

being a total of 27,852 bales, against 24,288 bales in 1857. These quantities, offered to the public periodically, begin to attract a good deal of attention, and many buyers from Germany and other parts are in the habit of attending these sales, when they can afford to pay the full equivalent of the rates current in Liverpool and Havre, on account of the saving of freight in summer and transhipment charges. The total imports into Holland in 1858 amounted to 101,909 bales, and the stock, January 1, 1859, was 7,755 bales.

THE COTTON TRADE OF HOLLAND.

	Imports.			
Years.	*Rotterdam.*	*Amsterdam.*	*Total.*	*Sales.*
	bales.	bales.		
1852,.....	50,876 ..	12,972 ..	63,848 ..	61,243
1853,.....	52,895 ..	8,400 ..	61,295 ..	60,858
1854,.....	55,300 ..	10,228 ..	65,528 ..	67,821
1855,.....	54,266 ..	12,481 ..	66,746 ..	66,885
1856,.....	73,842 ..	20,117 ..	93,459 ..	93,816
1857,.....	73,342 ..	36,519 ..	109,861 ..	101,041
1858,.....	80,124 ..	21,785 ..	101,909 ..	106,237
1859,.....	74,038 ..	27,160 ..	101,107 ..	102,013

It will be seen that the demand for cotton, as evidenced by the sales in Holland, has nearly doubled in seven years, having risen from 61,243 bales in 1852, to 102,013 bales in 1859. The price of the colonial cotton, the produce of Surinam and Nickerie, was quoted at 6d. to 8½d. free on board in Rotterdam, in January, 1860. The quantity submitted by the Netherlands Trading Company, at their periodical sales in 1859, consisted of 20,834 bales American and 7,583 East Indian.

X. LABOR AND WAGES.

One feature of the cotton manufacture of England, which claims attention, is the large number of minors employed in their mills, viz., 20,000 under twelve years of age, 144,000 between twelve and eighteen. This was in the year 1835, viz.:

				Proportion.	
	Males.	*Females.*	*Totals.*	*Males.*	*Females.*
Under 12 years of age,....	10,087 ..	10,501 ..	20,588 ..	6.4 p. c. ..	5.3 p. c.
" 18 " "	61,169 ..	82,906 ..	144,075 ..	38.5 " ..	42.1 "
Over 18 " "	87,299 ..	103,411 ..	190,710 ..	55.1 " ..	52.6 "
Totals,.....	158,555 ..	196,818 ..	355,373 ..	44.6 " ..	55.4 "

TOTAL OF CHILDREN, YOUNG PERSONS AND ADULTS IN ALL THE COTTON FACTORIES OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND IN THE YEAR 1835.

	England.	*Wales.*	*Scotland.*	*Ireland.*	*Total.*
Number of factories at work,....	2,555 ..	90 ..	425 ..	90 ..	3,160
Between 8 and 12 years, males,....	9,292 ..	47 ..	690 ..	58 ..	10,087
" " " females,...	9,536 ..	29 ..	842 ..	94 ..	10,501
Total,.....	18,828 ..	76 ..	1,532 ..	152 ..	20,548
Between 12 and 18 years, males,...	53,114 ..	485 ..	6,420 ..	1,150 ..	61,169
" " " females,..	65,218 ..	403 ..	14,722 ..	2,563 ..	82,906
Total,.....	118,332 ..	888 ..	21,142 ..	3,713 ..	144,075
Totals, males under 18 years,....	62,406 ..	532 ..	7,110 ..	1,208 ..	71,256
" females " " ...	74,754 ..	432 ..	15,564 ..	2,657 ..	93,407
Total,.....	137,160 ..	964 ..	22,674 ..	3,865 ..	164,663
Above 18 years, males,.....	75,848 ..	448 ..	8,904 ..	2,099 ..	87,299
" " females,.....	80,685 ..	524 ..	19,117 ..	3,085 ..	103,411
Total,.....	156,533 ..	972 ..	28,021 ..	5,184 ..	190,710
Total persons, males,.....	138,254 ..	980 ..	15,818 ..	3,503 ..	158,555
" " females,.....	155,439 ..	956 ..	34,362 ..	6,061 ..	196,818
Totals, year 1835,.....	293,693 ..	1,936 ..	50,180 ..	9,564 ..	355,373
" year 1860,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	500,000

The position of the cotton industry of Great Britain, and of the countries with which she carries on her commercial transactions, is very different now from what it was twenty-five years ago. The increase of population, the progress of colonization, the improvements in machinery, the spread of wealth consequent upon the gold discoveries and other causes, and the facilities of transport by means of rail-roads and steam navigation, have effected more in the last quarter of a century, especially for the commerce of Great Britain, than has been realized in any previous half century; and this prosperity has been fully shared by their cotton manufactures, as will be seen in the following table:

POPULATION, COTTON IMPORTS, COTTON GOODS EXPORTED, NUMBER OF FACTORIES AND SPINDLES, REVENUE, &C., OF GREAT BRITAIN IN THE YEARS 1835 AND 1860.

	1835.	1860.
Population of Great Britain,.....	17,564,138 ..	27,435,325
" Manchester,.....	170,000 ..	450,000
Cotton production, United States, bales,.....	1,254,328 ..	4,675,770
Cotton imported into Great Britain, lbs.,.....	363,702,000 ..	1,390,938,000
Cotton worked up in Great Britain, lbs.,.....	333,043,000 ..	1,105,965,000
Cotton manufactures exported, declared value,..	£22,128,000 ..	£52,013,000
Cotton manufactures consumed in the United Kingdom, estimated,.....	£29,504,000 ..	£69,350,000
Capital embarked in cotton industry in England,	£35,000,000 ..	£100,000,000
Spindles at work in United Kingdom,.....	9,350,000 ..	33,000,000
Number of persons employed in cotton factories in the United Kingdom,.....	216,858 ..	500,000
Aggregate value of the gross imports of United Kingdom,.....	£48,911,000 ..	£214,000,000
Aggregate value of exports of British produce and manufactures,.....	£47,372,000 ..	£135,892,000
Revenue of the United Kingdom,.....	£51,847,000 ..	£71,967,000

XI. COTTON MANUFACTURES OF THE UNITED STATES.

Statistics relating to the cotton manufactures of this country are not to be had of a recent or reliable character. The latest in reference to New-England have been furnished by Mr. SAMUEL BATCHELDER, Treasurer of the York Manufacturing Company, (of Saco, Maine,) for publication in the annual report of the Boston Board of Trade for 1861. From this statement we copy as follows:

It is very difficult to obtain any accurate information as to the extent of the cotton manufacture in the United States at the present time, or any data from which to estimate its increase. The census of the United States gives the quantity of cotton consumed, an estimate of capital invested and some other particulars, but neither the number of looms nor spindles. Of that in 1850 we had an "abstract" in 1853, and in 1854 a "compendium," but it was not till 1858 that we had, by authority of an act of Congress, a "Digest of the Statistics of Manufactures," prepared by Mr. KENNEDY, no copy of which can be found either in the library at the State House, or the Athenæum, or the Board of Trade; and if found, at this late day, in this progressive age, it would be something like an old almanac, and all the different branches of business would have outrun the figures before the public could get the benefit of them.

As to the condition of the cotton manufacture in Massachusetts, I have been able to obtain, by favor of a member of the Valuation Committee, a statement of the number of spindles and looms in every town in the State in 1860, amounting to 1,688,471 spindles and 41,620 looms. From various other sources I collect the following particulars respecting the manufactures of Massachusetts at former periods:

	Spindles.	*Looms.*
From a report of a committee of Congress appointed in 1832, to inquire into the progress of the manufacture of cotton goods, (DE BOW's Industrial Resources, Vol. I., pp. 215, 216,) it appears that in 1831 there were in Massachusetts.....	339,777	8,981
From a statement (*supra*, Vol. I., p. 220) based, as quoted, partly on the official census of 1840,.....	665,095	....
From another document, perhaps more reliable, the number is stated at.....	624,540	....
From the "Statistics of Massachusetts" for 1845, the number appears to be.....	817,483	....
In 1850, from the foregoing statement of DE BOW, p. 220,.....	1,288,091	32,635
From the Massachusetts Statistics for 1855,.....	1,519,527	....
From the Valuation Committee, as before stated, in 1860,.....	1,688,471	41,620

In the foregoing statements, where we have an opportunity to compare the number of spindles with the looms, the proportion is 38, 39 and 40 spindles to the loom, which would confirm the general accuracy of the figures.

From the above statements we obtain the following results as to the progressive increase of the number of spindles in Massachusetts:

	Spindles.	*Increase.*	*Per Cent.*
In 1831,.....	339,777	....	..
1840,.....	624,540	.. 284,763	.. 83
1845,.....	817,483	.. 191,143	.. 30
1850,.....	1,288,091	.. 470,608	.. 57
1855,.....	1,519,527	.. 231,436	.. 18
1860,.....	1,688,471	.. 168,944	.. 11

From 1850 to 1860, the number has increased 400,380, being 31 per cent. upon the number in 1850, in ten years.

In the Massachusetts Statistics for 1845, the annual consumption of cotton is stated at 56,851,654 lbs., which, divided by the number of spindles, 817,483, gives per spindle, per year, 69.54 lbs. According to the census of 1850, the consumption is estimated at 223,607 bales, which, multiplied by 425 lbs., the average weight of bales at that time, gives 95,032,975 lbs.; this, divided by 1,288,091, the number of spindles at that time, gives, per year, 73.70 lbs.

According to Massachusetts Statistics of 1855, the number of pounds of cotton was 105,851,749, which, divided by the number of spindles, 1,519,527, gives 69.66 lbs.

In Massachusetts, by the "Statistics of 1845," the value was $11,264,212, which, divided by 817,488 spindles, gives for value per spindle,	$13 65
By census of 1850, $19,712,461, divided by 1,288,091 spindles,	15 30
By Massachusetts Statistics, 1855, $24,359,212, divided by 1,519,527 spindles,	16 03

These results agree very nearly with the actual value derived from the accounts of several mills in Massachusetts, New-Hampshire and Maine, varying from $12 75 to $16 60 per spindle for the value of product, or cost of material and labor per year, the variation being much less than in the pounds of cotton per spindle, because where the labor is less on the coarser article, the quantity and cost of material will be more.

As to the present extension of the business, we have a list from the *Merchants' Magazine*, Vol. 43, p. 378, of mills in progress in New-England and New-York since September, 1859, amounting to 273,500 spindles, proposed to be put in operation during 1860 and 1861. In some cases, the numbers in this list are under-estimated, so that about 350,000 would probably be the correct number, unless some of these enterprises should be reduced by the discouragements of the times.

There is much uncertainty in the estimates of the consumption of cotton for factory purposes. De Bow (*supra*, p. 210) sets down the spindles, in 1840, at 2,112,000, and estimates the pounds of cotton consumed at 106,000,000. This would be only 50 lbs. to the spindle. On the contrary, a statement in the *Merchants' Magazine* (March, 1859, p. 375) gives 67,500 as the number of spindles in Maryland, and 50,000 lbs. per day for the consumption of cotton, amounting to 15,000,000 lbs. per year, which would give 222 lbs. for the yearly consumption per spindle. De Bow (*supra*, p. 233) gives the number of spindles and consumption in the following States in 1850:

	Spindles.	*Bales.*
Tennessee,	36,000 ..	12,000
Alabama,	16,962 ..	6,000
Georgia,	51,140 ..	27,000
South Carolina,	36,500 ..	15,000
	140,602 ..	60,000

The report of the Philadelphia Board of Trade for 1860, p. 81, gives the consumption of cotton, of the crop of 1858–9, as follows:

The manufacturing States north of Virginia, ... bales,	760,218
" " " south " "	164,700
	924,918

And says: "The quantity manufactured north of Virginia is deduced from the comparison of receipts with shipments abroad." On the whole, the estimated consumption in the cotton factories is probably too high, as it must include all that is used in combination with wool, and for various other purposes, but would probably be, at this time, nearly 900,000 bales.

It is difficult to make any satisfactory estimate of the number of spindles at this time in different parts of the country. The Philadelphia Board of Trade gives the number within the business circuit of Philadelphia, probably including a considerable part of New-Jersey, at 420,968. The number in Maryland is stated at 67,500.

The Chamber of Commerce Report of New-York, for 1858, gives the number of cotton factories at 86, and states the number of hands employed, capital invested and other particulars, but nothing by which any calculation can be made of the number of spindles; these matters must be left to be revealed with the mysteries of the census of 1860.

THE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION OF 1862.

Every succeeding day tends further to demonstrate the great interest which is felt in the forthcoming international exhibition, as shown by the fact that the guarantee fund now amounts to £369,200, progressively advancing about £10,000 per day, and there can be little doubt that in a few days it will reach £400,000. Some of the foreign powers have sent replies to communications addressed to them, stating that their governments will in every way in their power lend their assistance to promote the interests of the Exhibition, and friendly assurances from most of the ministers of the other countries who are resident in London have also been received, but as yet the time has not been sufficient to obtain answers to the notifications forwarded by them to their respective countries. In those foreign countries from which answers have been received local commissioners will be appointed similar to those who were chosen previous to the Exhibition of 1851, who will superintend the arrangements as to the mode of transit and other regulations to be carried out in concurrence with their respective governments. As the 12th of February is the first day for receiving goods, and the 31st of March the latest period at which they will be received, it is necessary that the commissioners should be appointed without much delay, as no article will be admitted from any foreign country without the sanction of such commissioners, and through whom all communications of her Majesty's Commissioners will take place. The portion of the building devoted to architecture, paintings in oil and water-colors and drawings, sculpture, etchings and the fine arts generally, is required by the contract to be roofed in by October, and the entire building to be finished and put into the possession of the commissioners by the end of December. Already in the provinces plans are being organized to facilitate the visit of persons to the Exhibition, and clubs for that purpose are contemplated, so that there is every reason to believe that the Exhibition of 1862 will be equally well attended as that of 1851.

THE SOUTHERN HARBORS OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE SOUTHERN ATLANTIC AND GULF COAST, FROM CAPE HENRY TO THE MOUTH OF THE RIO GRANDE.

BY AN OFFICER OF THE U. S. COAST SURVEY.

I. ALBEMARLE AND PAMPLICO SOUND. II. BEAUFORT, N. C. III. WILMINGTON, N. C. IV. GEORGETOWN, S. C. V. BULL'S BAY. VI. CHARLESTON, S. C. VII. BEAUFORT, S. C. VIII. SAVANNAH, GA. IX. BRUNSWICK, GA. X. FERNANDINA, FLA. XI. ST. JOHN'S, FLA. XII. ST. AUGUSTINE, FLA. XIII. KEY WEST, FLA. XIV. FORT JEFFERSON, FLA. XV. TAMPA BAY. XVI. CEDAR KEYS. XVII. ST. MARK'S, FLA. XVIII. ST. GEORGE'S SOUND. XIX. PENSACOLA, FLA. XX. MOBILE, ALA. XXI. MOUTHS OF THE MISSISSIPPI. XXII. GALVESTON, TEXAS. XXIII. BRAZOS RIVER. XXIV. MATAGORDA BAY. XXV. BRAZOS SANTIAGO. XXVI. MOUTH OF THE RIO GRANDE. XXVII. ESPIRITU SANTO BAY. XXVIII. SAN ANTONIO BAY. XXIX. MISSION BAY. XXX. HINES BAY.

THE important cities of Virginia and Maryland have an access to the ocean only through the Chesapeake Bay, which, at its entrance from the shoals of Cape Charles to those of Cape Henry, measures eight miles in width. A single man-of-war could close the bay against the exit or entrance of the merchant marine, provided there was no naval armament to act against it. It is probable that one of our larger vessels, with the aid of a small war-sloop like the PERRY, could close the bay against all commerce, especially while Fort Monroe, which is not far from the entrance, remains in the possession of the United States government.

NORTH CAROLINA.

I. *Albemarle and Pamplico Sound.*—After passing Cape Henry, for two hundred miles, low sand islands and shoals lie between the shore and ocean, forming the Currituck, Albemarle, Pamplico and Core Sounds, navigable for vessels of light draft. The Dismal Swamp Canal connects the Chesapeake with these sounds; the first practicable ocean inlet is one hundred and thirty-five miles from Cape Henry, a narrow and difficult entrance, known as Hatteras Inlet, with only seven feet water on the bar. A single vessel of light draft would be sufficient for the closing of this channel. Eighteen miles southwest of it is Ocracoke Inlet, of the same character; both open into Pamplico Sound. Ocracoke Bar gives ten feet at mean low water.

The only opening into Albemarle Sound is by a shallow, winding channel through Oregon Inlet, about forty miles north of Cape Hatteras. The depth of water at the bar of the inlet is probably about five feet.

II. *Beaufort.*—Following the coast southward for fifty-five miles below Ocracoke Inlet there are no connections with the interior sounds until the old Topsail Inlet is reached, which leads to the harbor of Beaufort, North Carolina. This harbor is about eight and a half miles west-northwest from Cape Lookout. It is a fine haven, having full fifteen feet of water on the bar at the entrance of the channel, at low tide, or eighteen at high water. The town of Beaufort is commercially important, having a rail-road connection with Raleigh, and at that point with the

various roads of the North and West. The entrance is defended by Fort Macon, a work of the same class as Fort Carroll.

There are several inlets for vessels drawing six and seven feet of water to the interior sounds, viz.: Bogue Inlet, with eight feet on the bar; New Topsail Inlet, with ten feet on the bar, and Deep Inlet, with seven feet on the bar, all of which are unimportant, as they lead to no ports of entry or rail-road towns. A vessel stationed at the entrance to Beaufort, by looking down the coast occasionally, could effectually guard these minor straits.

It is proper to state that in giving the depth of water, when the extreme highest figure is used, it indicates the depth only at a special point. The average depth will be found nearer the lower figure employed. With this explanation, we proceed to

III. *Wilmington.*—The next harbor of importance is that of Wilmington, North Carolina, on Cape Fear River.

This port has a single channel with two inlets, fifteen miles in length, rather tortuous and narrow in places, with a depth of seven and a half feet to eight on the bars in low water, which could be easily blockaded by two vessels. Wilmington is connected by rail-road with the interior, and is thus important as a commercial entrepôt. Near the mouth of Cape Fear River are Forts Johnson and Caswell, recently seized by the secessionists. Fort Johnson is rather a collection of barracks, with a block-house, than a fort. Fort Caswell is a third-class work.

South Carolina.

IV. *Georgetown.*—The next accessible harbor is that of Georgetown, South Carolina, seventy-two miles southwest from Cape Fear, having a single winding channel, ten miles in length, running among shoals. The depth of channel varies from seven feet to thirty. The Pedee River connects Georgetown with the interior, being navigable as far as Conwayboro, by brigs. The blockade of the entrance to this harbor would be easy. Further down the coast empties the Santee River, whose mouth is obstructed by shoals, on which the depth of water is only from two to two and a quarter feet.

V. *Bull's Bay.*—This is a good harbor of refuge from southeast winds, and very accessible. The depth on the bar at mean low water is thirteen feet, and the anchorage is good in twenty-one feet, inside. Capers' and Dewees' Inlets, below Bull's Bay, admit vessels drawing six feet water.

VI. *Charleston.*—The harbor of Charleston has six entrances, which, beginning with the one furthest north, are in order: Maffitt's, or the Sullivan's Island Channel, with eleven feet; the North Channel, with eight feet; the Swash, with nine feet; the Overall Channel, which is not now used; the main Ship Channel, with eleven feet; and Lawford Channel, which gives eleven feet at mean low water. The entrance by North Channel is extremely precarious to vessels drawing seven feet of water, and impassable at low tides to any other. Swash Channel varies in depth from seven to ten feet. Maffitt's Channel is narrow at the bulkhead near Fort Moultrie jettee. The entrances to Charleston are such that a single vessel could easily blockade the harbor, without being molested from possible fortifications on shore. Charleston is connected with the interior by the Ashley and Cooper Rivers, and by two rail-roads that join the national net-work. The entrance to Charleston is perfectly protected by Forts Moultrie and Sumter, the latter on a shoal near the channel. There are

also military works on Morris Island and Cumming's Point. The city, lying at the confluence of two rivers and surrounded by low rice marshes, is difficult of approach. There is an approach through Elliott's Cut, from Stone River. North Edisto River, between Charleston and St. Helena Sound, has nine feet of water on its bar at mean low tide. This and the Stono and South Edisto River entrances are good harbors of refuge from northeast winds for vessels of light draft.

VII. *Beaufort.*—Following the coast downward, the next seaport of any importance is Beaufort, South Carolina. This place, situated on St. Helena Island, is accessible by two inlets, viz., the south channel of St. Helena Sound, in depth seventeen feet; the second inlet, of twenty feet, being the southeast channel of Port Royal entrance. Beaufort River has an average depth of sixteen feet at low water, to a point within two miles of the city, and nearly fifteen up to Beaufort. The entrance to this port is easier than that of Charleston, but as there are no rail-road or river communications with the interior, the importance of the place as a port of entry is limited.

GEORGIA.

VIII. *Savannah.*—The city of Savannah furnishes the next accessible harbor, to which there is a single entrance, with a depth of water of eleven feet at mean low water on the bar. At high water, vessels drawing fifteen feet can reach the city, and those drawing eighteen feet, can anchor within two miles of the city. Savannah is one of the most important southern Atlantic cities, having connection with the interior both by lines of railway and the Savannah River. The city is entirely surrounded by rice swamps; would be difficult of approach by land, and the entrance by sea is effectually guarded by Fort Pulaski, on Cockspur Island, under whose guns all vessels have to pass in entering. Fort Jackson is three miles below the city. Wassaw, not far from Savannah, is reached by an intricate entrance, with ten feet of water on the bar. The place has no connections nor importance, except its proximity to Savannah. Ossabaw Inlet, off the mouth of the Ogeechee River, has a depth of fourteen feet on the bar. St. Catharine's Channel has eight and half feet on the bar, and is not more than two hundred yards wide. Sapelo Inlet has from eighteen to twenty feet of water. These three channels lead to Sunbury and other insignificant places on the sounds, not connected by rail-road or navigable rivers with the interior. Darien, on the Altamaha River, has a single inlet, with thirteen feet on the bar, called Doboy Inlet. The place has no rail-road or other commercial connection with the inland towns.

IX. *Brunswick.*—The entrance to the harbor of Brunswick is by St. Simon's Inlet and Sound, which has a depth of seventeen feet at mean low water. The channel of Turtle River, leading from St. Simon Sound, has twenty-one feet of water up to the town. Brunswick has a rail-road partly finished, which is intended to connect it with the great national roads. At present it could not be made an important port of entry.

FLORIDA.

X. *Fernandina.*—The first important seaport after leaving Savannah is Fernandina, near the entrance of St. Mary's River, the boundary between

Georgia and Florida. The entrance is by a channel between Cumberland and Amelia Islands, with fourteen feet of water on the bar. Fernandina is connected by a railway, one hundred and thirty-five miles in length, running across the State, with Cedar Keys, on the Gulf of Mexico, and is thus an important commercial point. It was proposed to make this road part of a great communication between New-York and New-Orleans.

XI. *St. John's River.*—The St. John's River is a broad arm of the sea, extending almost parallel with the coast for a distance of one hundred and sixty miles, affected by the tide almost to its source. There is a depth of seven feet at mean low water on the bar. The channel up to Jacksonville affords about twenty-three feet of water. There is a great deal of uncertainty in the navigation of most of those inlets, as the bars are constantly shifting. Ossabaw and St. Simon's, Georgia, have been tolerably constant in depth, and the channel of Sapelo quite so, the changes being favorable in depth and position. A single vessel could effectually blockade the St. John's River. On this river is Jacksonville, which is about twenty-seven miles from the bar at the entrance of the St. John's.

XII. *St. Augustine.*—The last place of any importance on the Atlantic coast of the Southern States is St. Augustine. The entrance to this harbor is by two inlets, with only five to six feet of water on the bar at low tide. The harbor is commanded by Fort Marion, an old Spanish work, which has been recently renovated. The commercial facilities of St. Augustine are limited, and the place is of small importance as a port of entry. Southward from St. Augustine there is a stretch of seventy miles of shoal and sand-bar before another inlet opens a passage for ships of even the lightest draft. This inlet has less than five feet of water at low tide, eight in high water, and leads only to a few small fishing towns.

Indian River Inlet, one hundred and ten miles to the southward, has a channel of barely three feet water, leading to Fort Pierce and Fort Capron, established during the Indian wars.

XIII.—*Key West.*—Key West is a harbor on the island of that name at the southern extremity of Florida. A well-constructed fort (Fort Taylor) guards the town and various entrances, which is in the hands of the United States government, rendered safe by recent reinforcements and supplies. It is of great importance as a naval station and strategic point, being one of the keys to the Gulf of Mexico.

XIV. *Fort Jefferson.*—West of Key West lie the Tortugas Islands, at the largest of which is Tortugas harbor, guarded by Fort Jefferson. This fortification, recently garrisoned and fully provisioned, may be considered safe for almost any contingency. The harbor is a valuable strategic point, as, together with Key West, it commands the entrances to the Gulf of Mexico. On the Gulf coast of Florida, coasting northward, there are a few shallow and unimportant inlets leading to small fishing towns, surrounded by wilderness. The harbors thus opened up are valuable only as affording safe anchorage in a storm. Among these are Charlotte Harbor and Tampa Bay. Boca Grande is the proper entrance to Char-

lotte harbor. The bar is five miles west of the entrance, and has ten to twelve feet of water.

XV. *Tampa Bay.*—The south entrance of Tampa Bay has a depth of nineteen feet, and the north entrance a depth of seventeen feet at mean low water.

XVI. *Cedar Keys.*—The first port on the Gulf coast, of commercial value, is Cedar Keys, situated ten miles south of the *debouchment* of the Suwanee River. This is one of the termini of a rail-road which crosses Florida, connecting with roads north and west. The entrances to Cedar Keys harbor are narrow; the best has a depth of only eleven feet over the bar. The bar of the Suwanee River, ten miles above, has but five feet of water.

XVII. *St. Mark's.*—One hundred miles up the coast, after turning to the west, St. Mark's is reached, a town commercially important on account of its connection by rail-road at Tallahassee, both with the northern and western interior. St. Mark's harbor is connected with Appalachee Bay by a single narrow entrance, eight miles in length, with nine feet of water on the bar, but only seven up to Fort St. Mark's. The blockade of St. Mark's by a single vessel of moderate size would be easy.

XVIII. *St. George's Sound.*—Fifty-five miles to the westward is Apalachicola, a small town at the mouth of Apalachicola River, on the bay of the same name. This river admits vessels drawing six feet of water. Those vessels drawing seven and a half feet only can approach near the town. The entrances to the bay and harbor are such that a single vessel could blockade it, if such a blockade were considered necessary. As the town is cut off from the interior by long reaches of dense swamp, through which a straggling post road is kept up, it will be considered of no importance. Next in value to Pensacola, as a capacious and safe harbor, is the Bay of St. Joseph. It is nearly land-locked, and has an anchorage depth of twenty-five to thirty-three feet, its entrance measuring seventeen feet of water on the bar. There is an unimportant fishing town called St. Joseph on this bay, and a tolerable road from it to Apalachicola.

The Bay of St. Andrew's, the next harbor on the coast, though a shelter for ships in bad weather, has only one small town upon its shores. Equally a wilderness is the country about St. Rosa Bay, which has a narrow entrance, with but six feet of water on the bar. Connecting this bay with the Bay of Pensacola, is St. Rosa Sound, navigable only for vessels drawing less than four feet of water.

XIX. *Pensacola.*—One of the most important points, in many respects, upon the Gulf, is Pensacola, the next approachable harbor to the West. Rail-roads connect it with Montgomery, the capital of the State of Alabama, at which point it is connected with the great net-work of national roads. The location near Pensacola of a United States navy yard adds to its importance. The Bay of Pensacola, on which the town lies, affords the finest harbor on the Gulf. The water on the bar at the entrance measures twenty-two feet; within the bay it is still deeper, but the depth is only twenty-one feet off the wharves of Pensacola. Santa Rosa Island, nearly forty miles in length, throws its western extremity across the mouth of the bay, leaving a single entrance one and a quarter miles wide. Near the extreme western end of the island is Fort Pickens, so

situated that the entrance channel sweeps around it in a semi-circle; and vessels entering are exposed in turn to the fire from three sides of the fort, within a range of less than a mile. Santa Rosa Island is scarcely a quarter of a mile wide at its broadest portion, and so low that heavy seas sometimes break entirely across some parts of it. Opposite Fort Pickens, on the main land, is Fort McRae, and a little to the south of the latter is the water battery. The Warrington Navy Yard and Fort Barrancas lie on a point of the main land within the bay, about one and two-thirds miles from Pickens. Fort Pickens can alone maintain a blockade of Pensacola, so long as it remains in the hands of the United States government.

A short distance west from Pensacola is Perdido Bay, with a bar on which lies but four feet of water.

Alabama.

XX. *Mobile.*—Forty miles west from Pensacola, on a bay of the same name, lies Mobile entrance, the second place of entry on the Gulf after New-Orleans. Two rail-roads connect it with the great national routes. The Mobile River and its branches, the Tombigbee and Alabama, navigable for steamboats several hundred miles, also make important connections with the interior. The population of Mobile is twenty-five thousand; its business wholly commercial. The entrance to the bay lies between Sand Island, on which the light-house stands, and a shoal making off from Mobile Point, a long narrow spit projecting from the main land, nearly fifteen miles in length. On the bar of the deepest channel the water lies twenty feet in depth. Fort Morgan guards the entrance, a fortification on Mobile Point, and all heavy draft vessels have to pass immediately under its guns in entering the bay. This fort is in the hands of the secessionists. The vessels blockading this port will experience some difficulty in finding safe anchorage during heavy weather, as the fort will prevent their using the bay as a refuge. The pass between Petit Bois and Horn Island, having sixteen feet, is the nearest refuge from southeast or southwest gales.

From Mobile Bay, westward, a line of low sand islands lies parallel to the coast, forming Mississippi Sound, which is navigable for coasters drawing six feet of water. Through this sound considerable trade is carried on with New-Orleans, by way of Bayou St. Jean and Lake Pontchartrain. The sound communicates with Mobile through a narrow channel of five feet at low water, called Grant's Pass. There are several connections between Mississippi Sound and the Gulf, viz.: between Dauphine and Petit Bois Islands, between Petit Bois and Horn Islands, and beyond Horn Island. The coast communication between New-Orleans and Mobile could be cut off by a small cutter, cruising between Horn Island and Chandeleur Reef, a distance of thirteen miles, cutting off at the same time the communication of New-Orleans with the Gulf, through Lake Pontchartrain. The latter body of water is navigated by vessels drawing seven feet of water. Cat and Ship Islands have good harbors, the first at its northeast end and the last at the northwest end. Their channels afford, respectively, seventeen and nineteen feet.

Louisiana.

XXI. *Mouths of the Mississippi.*—There are three main passes to the Mississippi, the Northeast Pass, the Southeast Pass and the Southwest

Pass. These, at their widest divergence, are about twenty-two miles apart. The Southwest Pass has usually thirteen feet of water on the bar; the depth varies considerably, so that vessels drawing but fourteen and a half feet sometimes lie weeks in the mud, before being able to pass over. The other passes are still more fickle and changeable, although admitting heavy draft vessels. The land at the entrance to the Mississippi River is nothing but mud banks, continually increasing, with reeds and rushes growing upon it, at the height of ten or twelve feet above the water. From the bar to New-Orleans is one hundred and twenty miles. The various passes converge, forming the delta, about twelve miles from the Gulf. At this point in the river two or three steamers could obstruct the navigation of the river for any length of time, and against an enemy approaching from any direction, except by a similar marine from the sea.

The city of New-Orleans, wholly commercial, finds its only available access to the Gulf through the Mississippi. Below the city are two forts on either bank of the river, in the hands of the secessionists, but not considered of much protective value.

New-Orleans has rail-road connections with the whole Union. A railway line, partly finished, connects it with Houston and Galveston, Texas. At the point where this road nearly approaches the Gulf is the only important harbor in Louisiana west of the Mississippi, Atchafalaya Bay, which has an entrance with but seven feet of water on the bar.

The mouth of the Sabine River has from six to eight feet of water on the bar. The sounds and channels along the coast from the Mississippi to the Sabine are navigable for vessels of three or four feet draft, and at certain seasons small steamers run for long distances up the various bayous that lead to the interior. There are no towns on the coast of any importance.

Texas.

XXII. *Galveston.*—The town of Galveston is built upon the northern extremity of Galveston Island. The entrance to the bay of the same name, which forms its harbor, lies between Point Oliver on the north and eastern extremity of Galveston Island on the south. It has a width of two miles, broken by shoals into four channels, which have a depth of from nine to twelve feet on the bar. The blockade of this city would be easily effected by a single vessel. The same blockade cuts off Houston, whose communication with the Gulf is through Buffalo Bayou and Galveston Bay.

XXIII. *Brazos River.*—This entrance is about fifty miles southwest of Galveston. A channel with eight feet leads to Quintana and Velasco, which lie on opposite sides of the entrance, a mile and a half above the bar.

XXIV. *Matagorda Bay.*—Passing the shallow mouth of the Brazos River, and a long stretch of coast, the Pasa del Cavallo, a narrow entrance to Matagorda Bay, is reached. This inlet, something less than two miles wide, has a depth of nine feet of water on the bar. On the Bay of Matagorda are the towns of Matagorda and Indianola, the former at the mouth of the Colorado River, the latter on the San Antonio. One hundred and ninety miles of coast are shut in by four long, narrow islands, viz., Matagorda, San Jose, Mustang and Padre Islands. Aranzas Pass,

between the first two, gives a narrow inlet for light draft vessels to the bay of the same name. The pass of Corpus Christi, between the second and third, has but four feet of water, leading up to a town of the same name.

XXV. *Brazos Santiago.*—The pass of Brazos Santiago has a width of about two miles, and seven feet of water on the bar.

XXVI. *Mouth of the Rio Grande.*—The Rio Grande, forming the line of boundary with Mexico, has a shifting bar of from five to seven feet in depth.

XXVII. *Espiritu Santo Bay* is about fifteen miles long, northeast and southwest, by about five miles in width. It communicates with the Gulf of Mexico through two small bayous at the northeast end, and connects also with Matagorda Bay at Pass Cavallo. Through one of the bayous (McHenry's) the State authorities of Texas have caused a channel to be opened affording a depth of four and a half feet at average high water, and the digging of a channel of ten feet from the bayou into Pass Cavallo, to form a harbor or dock for steamers and other sea-going vessels, has been undertaken by private enterprise. The town of Saluria is situated at the east end of this bayou. Throughout the bay there is an average depth of seven feet, the bottom being generally soft mud and shells, except in one locality, known as the "Middle Ground," which is sand, and a portion of which is usually bare at low water. The shores are low and marshy on all sides.

XXVIII. *San Antonio Bay* is of an irregular and somewhat triangular shape, the greatest length being, from north to south, about twenty miles, and the width ranging from four to eighteen miles. It has no direct communication with the Gulf of Mexico, and is, therefore, but little affected by the Gulf tides. Frequently the water is made fresh by the discharge from the Guadalupe River, which enters at its northeast end, and it is almost always muddy.

XXIX. *Mission Bay* is a small, shallow sheet of water, cut off from the head of San Antonio Bay, on the east side, by the delta of the Guadalupe River, and having not over eighteen inches of water into or through it. A small bayou, entering on its east side, drains Green Lake, which is a small sheet of fresh water lying some miles further up the delta.

XXX. *Hines Bay*, on the west side of the delta, is of the same character, but is larger, being about three and a half miles in diameter and shaped like a horse-shoe. It is also deeper than Mission Bay, affording about three feet of water to its head. On the north side is the swamp of the delta, but on the south a prairie bluff twenty feet high bounds the shore, and here, within a space of three miles, some twenty or thirty houses form what is called "Crescent Village."

Note.—*In the August No. of* The Merchants' Magazine and Commercial Review *we propose to publish a full list of all the harbors and rivers of the United States—showing the least water in the channels of the harbors, rivers and anchorages on the coasts of the United States, with the limits between which depths are given. From the Report of the Superintendent of the United States Coast Survey. Revised, with additions and tidal data.*

MARINE STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES.

From carefully compiled tables of marine disasters, the relative value of the risks between different ports may be correctly deduced. An analysis at the end of the year, showing the whole number of voyages between any two ports, in connection with the disasters occurring on such voyages, would be the best criterion of the value of risks in that trade. So, again, the whole number of disasters, taken in connection with the whole number of vessels of each class, would enable us to set a proper value on hull risks.

There are also lucky and unlucky vessels, and it only needs a reference to the disasters of the past few years to show an extraordinary recurrence of disasters to the same vessels and under the same masters. The mere tabulating and printing of these facts serve to impress them on the memory of those to whom it is very important to recollect at all times such fortuitous chances. The bare recollection of a single name may be the means of saving thousands. It is an axiom, that a perfect knowledge of details is essential to the thorough working of any theory, and we need not go out of the annals of marine insurance to forcibly illustrate this idea.

One of the most important public documents to the mercantile community, which are annually presented to the British Parliament, is the "abstract of the returns of the wrecks and casualties which occur on and near the coast of the United Kingdom." A description of its contents will serve both to show the importance attached to this subject on the other side of the water, and will also be useful as a model for similar efforts for the collection of like data, which we may hope will one day be made in our own country. The United States has already set a noble example to the world, in the munificent patronage it has afforded to the efforts of [the late] Commander Maury, at the extension of our knowledge of all that relates to the physical geography of the sea. His "charts and sailing directions" have been distributed with a lavish hand, and thousands of sailors, guided by the information contained in them, have contributed in their turn intelligent observations, made in the navigable waters of all parts of the world, to swell the vast fund of nautical knowledge already obtained. The importance of this enterprise is universally admitted, but the necessity of collecting, arranging and preserving for future use a record of facts about shipwrecks, is not so generally appreciated. The reasons for this indifference are easily understood; Mr. Maury's observations have a practical value that is readily appreciated, and while, with the aid of the mercantile marine, they are gradually forming a great addition to our scientific knowledge, they also serve as a daily guide to the operations of the navigator, while statistics of disasters at sea, though of immense value (when made for a sufficient length of time and collected by proper methods) in the regulation of insurance premiums, possess no particular interest for the community at large. It is true that the whole commercial world are interested in the fair distribution of insurance charges, but the excess of one rate or the diminution of another, which a more exact system might cause, would

affect mercantile transactions so slightly that business men, engrossed in their private concerns, can hardly be expected to feel much interest in dull collections of facts and figures, which must be patiently tabulated for many years before they become of practical importance. It is true that the great facts of science have only been arrived at by similar laborious efforts; it is true, that year after year, and age after age, patient workers have accumulated, step by step, that vast fund of knowledge which is at the basis of our modern civilization; and it is also true, that those who have done the world most service have been the worst rewarded for their pains. We do not always learn by experience, or we would not so readily condemn labors, the importance of which cannot be appreciated in a hasty glance, nor dismiss as useless collections of marine statistics, because we cannot form exact conclusions from limited observations of this kind; and because, if carelessly collected or arranged without method, they are not worth the paper they are printed on. In every branch of science instances can be shown where apparently insignificant and unimportant facts, collected together, form the basis from which we discover some of the important laws of nature, and these, in their turn, practically applied, add greatly to the comforts and happiness of life. When a sufficient number of tables are collected about wrecks and accidents at sea, we will be able to discover the law which governs them, just as surely as the life-underwriter is now able to discover, from the facts in his possession, the law upon which the duration of human life depends, and we will then be able to make calculations about marine insurance just as exact as those which are now made about life risks.

For the past two months the pages of this magazine have contained a series of tables relating to casualties and wrecks which are well worth the attention of underwriters; they consist of an alphabetically arranged list of steamers, ships, barks, brigs and schooners, the masters' names, when and where built and owned, the voyage on which the disaster occurred, its nature, locality and date, and the estimated amount of loss on hulls and cargoes. These risks form the basis from which many important tables might be made, and, with the assistance of the published registers of ships made in this country, in England and France, and also of the commercial documents of exports and imports published by the governments of the three countries, a mass of information on the subject might be digested, the value of which can easily be conceived. The undertaking, however, is an expensive one, and unless its importance can be made evident to underwriters, and their sympathies and assistance secured, it cannot possibly be prosecuted. If the thing is undertaken at all, it should be done thoroughly. The basis of the doctrine of chances is to ascertain how often a certain event occurs in a given number of trials. It is evident, then, that the losses themselves are of no importance, unless they are compared with the whole number of ventures. If it could be proved by statistics, that year after year one ship was lost out of every sixty-seven that made a particular voyage, and supposing that they were all of equal value, it would be mathematically certain that one and one-half per cent. on the value of each ship would make good the loss. But if we merely know that there are ten ships on an average lost in this trade, and five in that, we have only ascertained that one business is twice as dangerous as the other; but without knowing the number exposed to loss in either case, we could make no calculation as

to the exact loss of the one or the other. It is evident, then, that it is necessary to have a basis of comparison in some trades, although it is unnecessary, and indeed it would be impossible to make the same series of observations for every voyage that could be undertaken.

A description of the British Board of Trade report, alluded to in the beginning of this article, will, as we have said, show how important these statistics are considered in England, and may, perhaps, serve as an incentive to similar efforts on this side of the water.

The prominent feature of the work is a chart of the British Islands, on which the spots where wrecks have occurred, and the nature of the various disasters, are designated by appropriate symbols, thus showing at a glance where the dangerous places are. Next in order is a detailed description of the various tables made in the work, and a summary and commentary on their contents. This is followed by an article on the gales of October and November, of 1859, made by Rear-Admiral FITZROY. After this we have twenty-one tables of wrecks and disasters, the contents of which may be summed up as follows:

The first table contains the wrecks and casualties for five years, giving the number and tonnage of vessels and the number of hands employed. The second contains the same matter, distinguishing British from foreign ships, sailing ships from steamers, and coasters from over-sea. The third contains the same matter as the second, with the addition of the numbers of voyages made by all ships of each class, and the per centage of losses as compared with the voyages. The fourth, wrecks and casualties, distinguishing the cargoes of the ships. The fifth, the same, distinguishing the ages of the ships. The sixth, the same, distinguishing the description and tonnage of the ships. The seventh, the points of the coast on which they happened. The eighth, according to the direction of the wind. The ninth, according to the force of the wind. The tenth and eleventh tables, according to the certificates held by the masters and according to insurance respectively. The twelfth, thirteenth, fourteenth, fifteenth and sixteenth, distinguishing the kind of losses. The seventeenth, distinguishing collisions and noting the time and the state of the weather when each collision happened. And finally, the remaining four tables contain the localities where the accidents happen, the number of lives lost, and general summaries of the preceding tables. This is followed by a description of the life-saving apparatus on the British coast, and the number of lives lost and saved. And finally, comes an inquiry into the causes of the disaster. These investigations are only made where there is reason to doubt the capacity or trustworthiness of the master or mate, and upon their results it depends whether he is deprived of his certificate or not. This latter branch of the report is certainly a matter of practical rather than theoretical interest; and as so much depends upon the skill and intelligence of masters of ships, it is well that they should have an opportunity of clearing themselves against unfounded suspicions before such a court of inquiry, and it is also well, that when, by their ignorance or wickedness, they have sacrificed human life or valuable property, that they should, by the same agency, be held up to the scorn and contempt they deserve, and should also be deprived of the means of committing the like crimes again.

MARINE STATISTICS OF THE PAST TWO YEARS.

Memoranda for 1859.

1,067	Disasters reported in 1859.	400	vessels, or 38	per cent.,	stranded.
828	" to American vessels.	87	" 8	"	abandoned.
239	" to foreign vessels.	87	" 8	"	fires.
		34	" 3	"	collisions.
444	vessels, or 41 per cent., total losses.	23	" 2	"	missing.

Proportion of Disasters to whole number of Vessels.

1,830	American ships,	222	disasters, or 12	per cent.
1,290	" barks,	135	" 10½	"
1,175	" brigs,	139	" 12	"
4,890	" schooners,	266	" 5½	"
9,185	" vessels,	762	" 8½	"

Total amount of estimated losses for 1859,	$37,626,070
Of which were foreign, say one-quarter,	9,406,517
Total amount of American losses,	$28,219,553

For New-York,	say 9-24 ..	$10,582,352
Boston,	" 6-24 ..	7,054,889
Philadelphia,	" 4-24 ..	4,703,259
New-Orleans,	" 3-24 ..	3,527,444
Other places,	" 2-24 ..	2,351,629
		$28,219,553

Memoranda for 1860.

In 1860 there were 1,029 disasters of all kinds:

344	stranded,	33½	per cent.	62 collisions,	6 per cent.
99	abandoned,	10	"	74 fires,	7 "
32	missing,	3	"	120 bound from N. Y.,	12 "
342	total losses,	33	"	113 " to N. Y.,	11 "
839	American vessels,	81	"		
190	foreign "	18	"		

Proportion of Disasters to whole number of Vessels.

1,920	American ships,	210	disasters, or 11	per cent.
1,340	" barks,	162	" 12	"
1,225	" brigs,	123	" 10	"
4,950	" schooners,	277	" 6	"
9,435	" vessels,	772	" 8	"

Total amount of estimated losses for 1860,	$28,675,900
Of which were foreign, say one-quarter,	7,168,975
Total amount of American losses,	$21,506,925

For New-York,	say 9-24 ..	$8,065,097
Boston,	" 6-24 ..	5,376,732
Philadelphia,	" 4-24 ..	3,584,488
New-Orleans,	" 3-24 ..	2,688,365
Other places,	" 2-24 ..	1,792,243
		$21,506,925

ANNUAL STATEMENTS OF THE MARINE INSURANCE COMPANIES OF NEW-YORK,

IN TABULAR FORM, FOR THE YEAR 1860.

NAME OF COMPANY.	*Premiums received during the year.*	*Premiums earned during the year.*	*Losses for the year.*	*Expenses, &c.*	*Return premiums.*	*Interest on investments, &c.*	*Net profits.*	*Int. on scrip. per ct.*	*Scrip div. pr. ct.*	*Stock. and dividend. per cent.*	*Interest*	*Fiscal year ends*
Atlantic,	$ 4,602,725 77	$ 4,541,183 59	$ 2,419,443 72	$ 609,312 55	Incld. in ex.	....	$ 1,512,479 32	6	35	....		Dec. 31, 1860.
Great Western,	2,171,291 80	2,418,110 84	1,327,192 49	269,363 20	$ 328,173 88	$ 79,991 35	* 787,273 70	6	20	7 @ 13	cash,	Dec. 31, 1860.
Sun,	1,316,118 39	1,221,692 65	767,685 85	81,753 70	89,095 37	....	283,157 73	6	25	....		Oct. 4, 1860.
Mercantile,	789,377 84	824,314 35	567,664 06	70,606 52	44,457 34	....	141,586 43	6	7	7 @ 4	cash,	Dec. 31, 1860.
Pacific,	815,579 32	816,304 69	413,110 58	99,023 18	56,489 52	....	247,681 41	6	30	....		Dec. 31, 1860.
New-York,	806,202 54	799,058 50	585,466 74	† 47,188 56	52,137 52	....	114,260 68	6	12	....		June 30, 1860.
Columbian,	969,820 64	779,998 99	625,866 78	112,502 89	137,901 51	....	loss 86,271 69	.	....	7		Oct. 31, 1860.
Commercial,	630,480 01	632,405 88	392,783 66	† 46,563 42	53,242 08	....	139,816 67	6	15	....		June 30, 1860.
Union,	549,915 10	587,193 60	197,306 53	124,193 68	87,883 40	....	178,309 99	6	36	....		Dec. 31, 1860.
Orient,	500,416 76	517,342 21	268,282 68	86,312 36	45,308 57	27,016 74	144,455 34	6	18½	3½	scrip,	Feb. 28, 1861.
Neptune,	392,775 25	267,560 14	134,932 49	71,845 59	13,206 96	13,287 01	61,362 11	new,	15	7 @ 4	cash,	Dec. 31, 1860.
Washington,	192,305 61	142,170 08	64,061 93	46,058 23	5,828 98	6,548 48	33,249 87	new,	15	7 @ 3	cash,	Dec. 31, 1860.
	$ 13,737,004 03	$ 13,547,280 42	$ 8,263,817 51	$ 1,664,123 88	$ 902,725 13	$ 126,843 58	$ 3,643,682 75					

ASSETS.	*Real Estate.*	*Stocks, Bonds, &c.*	*Loans on Stocks, &c.*	*Cash.*	*Dividends and Claims.*	*Subscription Notes.*	*Premium Notes, Bills Rec., &c.*	*Total Assets.*
Atlantic,	$ 200,000 00	$ 2,666,878 42	$ 1,190,152 05	$ 106,154 67	$ 105,190 12	....	$ 2,378,416 84	$ 6,646,292 10
Great Western,	....	1,119,447 61	406,350 00	169,777 18	88,804 41	....	1,620,261 19	3,354,640 39
Sun,	‡ 549,500 00	$281,018 29	....	123,274 76	85,362 50	....	772,066 52	1,761,222 07
Mercantile,	....	389,504 10	140,490 00	71,572 31	77,088 21	....	512,368 55	1,140,973 17
Pacific,	....	281,150 00	197,623 01	78,577 22	53,858 07	$ 35,378 87	414,168 55	1,060,750 72
New-York,	67,311 42	250,500 00	201,783 80	26,259 19	62,594 48	....	427,967 45	1,036,416 34
Columbian	....	368,300 00	....	67,681 88	82,888 77	incl'd in p'm,	709,869 67	1,228,684 77
Commercial,	....	§ 438,786 17	....	70,154 00	39,828 60	....	476,586 23	1,025 355 06
Union,	75,000 00	458,575 00	395,874 20	95,741 10	179,331 81	....	454,825 95	1,659,348 06
Orient,	....	410,321 50	129,350 00	25,255 05	16,646 49	¶ 600,000 00	244,872 02	1,426,445 00
Neptune,	....	83,000 00	43,650 00	77,738 39	26,680 66	86,575 32	170,460 18	488,099 55
Washington,	....	60,500 00	30,000 00	62,510 26	26,289 14	....	96,019 09	275,318 49
	$ 891,811 42	$ 6,757,481 09	$ 2,735,273 06	$ 974,690 46	$ 744,458 26	$ 721,954 19	$ 8,277,877 24	$ 21,103,545 92

* Including reserve of last year. † Expenses partially included in losses. ‡ Including bonds and mortgages. § Including loans on stocks, &c. ¶ Stock capital notes.

Statement showing the comparative loss on Vessels and Freight, and on Cargoes, during the year 1860.

I. Loss on Vessels and Freight.

Months.	*Steamers.*	*Ships.*	*Barks.*	*Brigs.*	*Schooners.*	*Total.*
Jan.,...	$26,500 ..	$677,000 ..	$319,200 ..	$95,000 ..	$60,600 ..	$1,178,300
Feb.,..	306,000 ..	571,500 ..	272,000 ..	47,000 ..	98,500 ..	1,295,000
March,.	524,000 ..	552,000 ..	253,500 ..	105,250 ..	102,700 ..	1,537,450
April,.	110,000 ..	379,000 ..	161,000 ..	57,500 ..	75,600 ..	783,100
May,..	70,500 ..	640,500 ..	105,500 ..	52,500 ..	77,300 ..	946,300
June,..	144,000 ..	288,000 ..	98,700 ..	57,000 ..	25,600 ..	613,300
July,..	306,000 ..	225,000 ..	129,200 ..	38,100 ..	50,900 ..	749,200
Aug.,..	70,000 ..	200,000 ..	133,000 ..	50,600 ..	40,300 ..	493,900
Sept.,..	240,000 ..	553,000 ..	58,100 ..	54,500 ..	71,000 ..	976,600
Oct.,...	750,000 ..	666,000 ..	199,000 ..	71,600 ..	72,400 ..	1,759,000
Nov.,..	836,500 ..	536,000 ..	190,500 ..	50,500 ..	186,600 ..	1,800,100
Dec.,..	330,000 ..	590,000 ..	110,250 ..	62,200 ..	100,300 ..	1,192,750
Total,..	$3,713,500	$5,878,000	$2,029,950	$741,750	$961,800	$13,325,000

II. Loss on Cargoes.

Jan.,....	$38,000 ..	$545,800 ..	$867,500 ..	$126,000 ..	$73,600 ..	$1,650,900
Feb.,...	342,300 ..	420,000 ..	264,500 ..	11,600 ..	75,600 ..	1,114,000
March,.	696,000 ..	492,000 ..	386,000 ..	186,100 ..	134,400 ..	1,894,500
April,..	242,000 ..	720,000 ..	376,600 ..	66,400 ..	75,700 ..	1,480,700
May,...	61,000 ..	972,200 ..	71,000 ..	56,200 ..	83,100 ..	1,243,500
June,..	19,000 ..	542,000 ..	158,500 ..	43,500 ..	96,000 ..	859,000
July,...	1,013,000 ..	241,000 ..	292,000 ..	105,000 ..	11,000 ..	1,662,000
Aug.,...	15,000 ..	91,000 ..	160,000 ..	147,000 ..	49,400 ..	462,400
Sept.,..	140,000 ..	665,500 ..	55,000 ..	66,000 ..	33,100 ..	959,600
Oct.,....	150,000 ..	687,000 ..	113,000 ..	35,000 ..	28,000 ..	1,013,000
Nov.,..	613,000 ..	525,000 ..	187,500 ..	27,900 ..	63,500 ..	1,416,900
Dec.,...	50,000 ..	1,076,500 ..	76,300 ..	24,900 ..	72,800 ..	1,300,500
Cargoes,	$3,379,300	$6,978,000	$3,007,900	$895,600	$796,200	$15,057,000
Vessels,	3,713,500	5,878,000	2,029,950	741,750	961,800	13,325,000
	$7,092,800	$12,856,000	$5,037,850	$1,637,350	$1,758,000	$28,382,000
1861.						
Jan.,...	$309,000 ..	$1,906,000 ..	$419,500..	$146,600 ..	$150,000 ..	$2,931,100
Feb.,..	427,200 ..	1,137,500 ..	472,500..	148,800 ..	217,700 ..	2,403,700
March,.	169,500 ..	1,142,800 ..	548,200..	340,300 ..	447,700 ..	2,648,500
April,.	47,500 ..	786,800 ..	347,900..	196,800 ..	238,550 ..	1,617,550
4 mos., 1861.						
Total,..	$953,200	$4,973,100	$1,788,100	$832,500	$1,053,950	$9,600,850
4 mos., 1860.						
Total,..	2,284,800	4,357,300	2,900,300	694,850	696,700	10,933,950
1859.						
Cargoes,	$5,939,500	$9,904,160	$2,438,100	$1,312,800	$958,860	$20,553,420
Vessels,	5,322,000	7,252,252	2,097,800	950,400	1,080,300	16,702,752
Year 1859.						
Total,..	$11,261,500	$17,156,412	$4,535,900	$2,263,200	$2,039,160	$37,256,172

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

AGGREGATE POPULATION OF THE STATE AND CITY OF NEW-YORK,

From 1790 *to* 1860, *with the increase every five years, and per centage of increase for each period.*

	State of New-York.			City of New-York.		
Year.	*Population.*	*Increase.*	*Per centage of increase.*	*Population.*	*Increase.*	*Per centage of increase.*
1790,.....	340,120 ..	.... ..	.... ..	33,131 ..	.... ..	....
1800,.....	588,603 ..	248,483 ..	73.05 ..	60,489 ..	27,358 ..	82.57
1810,.....	961,888 ..	373,285 ..	63.42 ..	96,373 ..	35,884 ..	59.32
1814,.....	1,085,910 ..	74,022 ..	7.69 ..	95,519 ..	.... ..	....
1820,.....	1,372,812 ..	336,902 ..	32.52 ..	123,706 ..	28,187 ..	29.51
1825,.....	1,614,456 ..	241,644 ..	17.60 ..	166,086 ..	42,380 ..	34,26
1830,.....	1,913,131 ..	298,675 ..	18.50 ..	197,112 ..	31,026 ..	18.68
1835,.....	2,174,517 ..	261,386 ..	13.66 ..	270,089 ..	72,977 ..	37.02
1840,.....	2,428,921 ..	254,404 ..	11.70 ..	312,710 ..	42,621 ..	15,78
1845,.....	2,604,495 ..	175,574 ..	7.22 ..	371,223 ..	58,513 ..	18.71
1850,.....	3,097,394 ..	492,899 ..	18.92 ..	515,547 ..	144,324 ..	38.87
1855,.....	3,466,212 ..	368,818 ..	11.91 ..	629,904 ..	114,357 ..	22.18
1860,.....	3,887,542 ..	421,330 ..	12.15 ..	813,668 ..	183,964 ..	29.17

THE POPULATION OF THE CITY OF NEW-YORK.

	White.	*Colored.*	*Total.*		*White.*	*Colored.*	*Total.*
Ward I.,.....	17,260 ..	118 ..	17,271	Ward XVII.,....	72,650 ..	303 ..	72,953
II.,.....	2,442 ..	65 ..	2,507	XVIII.,....	57,070 ..	392 ..	57,462
III.,.....	3,733 ..	24 ..	3,757	XIX.,....	27,697 ..	557 ..	28,254
IV.,.....	21,925 ..	69 ..	21,994	XX.,....	66,109 ..	1,410 ..	67,519
V.,.....	20,934 ..	1,502 ..	22,336	XXI.,....	48,651 ..	366 ..	49,017
VI.,.....	26,372 ..	324 ..	26,696	XXII.,....	61,587 ..	138 ..	61,725
VII.,.....	39,841 ..	141 ..	39,982				
VIII.,.....	36,640 ..	2,766 ..	39,409	Total,.....	793,521 ..	12,136 ..	805,657
IX.,.....	43,961 ..	424 ..	44,385	Blackwell's Island,	4,512 ..	69 ..	4,581
X.,.....	28,808 ..	196 ..	29,004	Ward's "	772 ..	.. ..	772
XI.,.....	59,346 ..	224 ..	59,570	Bedloe's "	4 ..	.. ..	4
XII.,.....	26,695 ..	263 ..	27,958	Ellis' "	5 ..	.. ..	5
XIII.,.....	33,410 ..	307 ..	32,917	Governor's "	696 ..	.. ..	696
XIV.,.....	27,001 ..	1,079 ..	28,080	Randall's "	1,922 ..	21 ..	1,953
XV.,.....	26,821 ..	764 ..	27,585				
XVI.,.....	44,568 ..	609 ..	45,177	Total,.....	801,422 ..	12,226	813,663

OFFICIAL CENSUS OF THE STATE OF ILLINOIS FOR 1860.

We have received from Mr. Kennedy, the Superintendent of the Census Bureau at Washington City, the following complete official returns of the recent census of Illinois. The results it presents are truly astonishing to all who have not been familiar with the vast and rapid increase of population in the Prairie State, which now stands fourth in the list, having outstripped, in the last decade, seven of her sister States, viz., Massachu-

setts, Indiana, Virginia, Georgia, North Carolina, Tennessee and Kentucky, each of which exceeded her population in 1850. There are now seventeen counties, each containing a population of over 25,000.

Counties.	*Pop.*	*Counties.*	*Pop.*
Adams,	41,323	Macon,	13,735
Alexander,	4,706	Macoupin,	24,602
Bond,	3,813	Madison,	31,215
Boone,	11,678	Marion,	12,733
Brown,	9,938	Marshall,	13,477
Bureau,	26,426	Mason,	10,933
Calhoun,	5,145	Massac,	6,214
Carroll,	11,733	McDonough,	20,069
Cass,	11,825	McHenry,	22,068
Champaign,	14,688	McLean,	28,749
Christian,	10,493	Menard,	9,596
Clark,	14,987	Mercer,	15,043
Clay,	9,386	Monroe,	12,332
Clinton,	10,941	Montgomery,	13,892
Coles,	14,201	Morgan,	22,118
*Cook,	144,957	Moultrie,	6,385
Crawford,	11,551	Ogle,	22,887
Cumberland,	6,811	Peoria,	36,600
De Kalb,	19,086	Perry,	9,552
De Witt,	19,819	Piatt,	6,129
Douglas,	7,140	Pike,	27,249
Du Page,	14,701	Pope,	6,742
Edgar,	16,925	Pulaski,	3,950
Edwards,	5,454	Putnam,	5,587
Effingham,	7,816	Randolph,	17,205
Fayette,	11,189	Richland,	9,711
Ford,	1,979	Rock Island,	21,005
Franklin,	9,393	Saline,	9,331
Fulton,	33,299	Sangamon,	32,255
Gallatin,	8,054	Schuyler,	14,685
Greene,	16,093	Scott,	9,070
Grundy,	10,379	Shelby,	14,685
Hamilton,	9,915	Stark,	9,004
Hancock,	29,061	St. Clair,	37,694
Hardin,	3,748	Stephenson,	25,113
Henry,	20,658	Tazewell,	21,471
Henderson,	9,501	Union,	11,183
Iroquois,	12,354	Vermillion,	19,801
Jackson,	9,586	Wabash,	7,313
Jasper,	8,372	Warren,	18,330
Jefferson,	12,965	Washington,	13,731
Jersey,	12,053	Wayne,	12,223
Jo Daviess,	27,276	White,	12,408
Johnson,	9,347	Whiteside,	13,746
Kane,	30,058	Will,	29,321
Kankakee,	15,416	Williamson,	12,305
Kendall,	13,074	Winnebago,	24,492
Knox,	28,663	Woodford,	13,283
Lake,	18,256		
La Salle,	48,322	Total 1860,	1,711,738
Lawrence,	9,274	" 1850,	851,470
Lee,	17,651	" 1840,	476,143
Livingston,	11,688	" 1830,	157,445
Logan,	14,276		

* City of Chicago, 109,263 population.

THE SAVINGS BANKS OF NEW-YORK.

In New-York city alone there are twenty-one of these institutions, with aggregate savings of $48,988,000. In Brooklyn, three, with deposits amounting to nearly seven millions. The following table represents the condition of each on 1st January, 1857 to 1861. Three of these institutions were established in the year 1860, and have but a limited business as yet:

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE SAVINGS BANKS OF THE CITY AND STATE OF NEW-YORK, ON THE 1st JANUARY, 1857—1861.

					JANUARY, 1861.	
New-York City.	*Jan.*, 1857.	*Jan.*, 1858.	*Jan.*, 1859.	*Jan.*, 1860.	*Deposits.*	*No. of Depositors.*
Bank for Savings,.....	$ 8,317,820	$ 8,350,546	$ 8,701,928	$ 9,544,479	$ 10,062,616 ..	52,480
Seamen's Bank,.....	7,179,354 ..	6,765,258 ..	7,349,474 ..	8,188,715 ..	8,922,634 ..	27,299
Bowery Savings,.....	6,645,566 ..	6,697,898 ..	7,818,143 ..	9,573,400 ..	10,294,995 ..	44,008
Greenwich Savings,.....	3,127,898 ..	3,356,111 ..	3,528,851 ..	3,786,125 ..	3,898,389 ..	18,076
Manhattan Savings,.....	1,894,739 ..	1,873,025 ..	1,782,067 ..	2,278,609 ..	2,794,934 ..	11,346
Emigrant Industrial,....	1,302,790 ..	1,343,780 ..	1,628,754 ..	2,120,505 ..	2,563,475 ..	10,169
Merchants' Clerks,.....	1,145,923 ..	1,191,150 ..	1,505,899 ..	1,826,776 ..	2,103,295 ..	8,079
Dry Dock Savings,.....	896,360 ..	933,543 ..	1,118,876 ..	1,527,572 ..	1,976,064 ..	7,121
East River Savings,.....	559,140 ..	626,867 ..	785,792 ..	979,451 ..	1,161,284 ..	5,235
Broadway Savings,.....	722,880 ..	662,446 ..	841,846 ..	973,478 ..	1,102,794 ..	4,063
Irving Savings,.....	500,000 ..	588,627 ..	719,498 ..	894,898 ..	1,036,547 ..	4,470
Mariners' Savings,.....	244,906 ..	288,402 ..	419,689 ..	598,794 ..	768,805 ..	3,268
Sixpenny Savings,.....	81,158 ..	85,922 ..	112,361 ..	146,294 ..	176,329 ..	3,764
Rose Hill Savings,.....	20,836 ..	35,806 ..	71,854 ..	105,527 ..	119,019 ..	555
Bloomingdale Savings,..	2,274 ..	668 ..	56,300 ..	125,062 ..	1,005 ..	35
Mechanics and Traders',.	310,645 ..	311,668 ..	361,612 ..	438,473 ..	532,933 ..	2,788
German Savings,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	239,912 ..	759,367 ..	4,669
Union Dime,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	62,013 ..	254,244 ..	3,016
Atlantic Savings,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	80,374 ..	610
Citizens' Savings,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	27,767 ..	467
Third Avenue Savings,..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	302,078 ..	1,508
New-York City,.....	$ 32,452,242	$ 32,615,182	$ 36,806,420	$ 43,410,088	$ 48,988,826	217,964
Brooklyn Savings Bank,.	2,160,865 ..	2,194,553 ..	2,660,981 ..	3,222,726 ..	3,681,389 ..	15,479
Williamsburgh Savings,.	662,281 ..	769,013 ..	1,086,882 ..	1,569,551 ..	1,905,761 ..	10,423
South Brooklyn Savings,	322,589 ..	346,635 ..	522,350 ..	751,819 ..	923,953 ..	5,484
Brooklyn Dime,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	79,954 ..	275,698 ..	6,135
New-York and Brooklyn,	$ 35,597,977	$ 35,925,383	$ 41,076,633	$ 49,084,138	$ 55,780,572	255,485
Interior towns,.....	6,101,525 ..	5,497,289 ..	7,118,214 ..	9,144,027 ..	11,669,825	55,208
Total State of New-York,	$ 41,699,502	$ 41,422,672	$ 48,194,847	$ 58,178,160	$ 67,450,397	310,693

Since 1st Jauuary, 1860, the number of savings bank depositors have increased from 196,979 to 217,964 in the city of New-York alone.

Savings Deposits of Interior Cities and Towns.

		1st January, 1861.		*Amount 1st Jan., 1860.*
		Amount.	*No. of Depos.*	
Albany,	Albany Savings Bank,	$1,346,998	5,405	$1,164,332
"	City Savings Institution,	229,833	798	188,282
"	Exchange Savings Bank,	56,019	181	44,947
"	Mechanics and Farmers' Savings,	547,505	1,578	338,978
"	Sixpenny Savings Bank,	14,752	1,016	14,128
"	Union Savings Bank,	44,257	187	30,363
Auburn,	Auburn Savings Institution,	166,189	980	119,408
Brockport,	Brockport Savings Bank,	3,179	50	2,340
Buffalo,	Buffalo Savings Bank,	1,177,880	7,238	988,325
"	Emigrant Savings Bank,	19,021	182	17,786
"	Erie County Savings Bank,	826,251	5,546	641,503
"	Western Savings Bank,	130,760	552	85,072
Cohoes,	Cohoes Savings Institution,	78,951	456	61,120
Schenectady,	Schenectady Savings Bank,	312,959	1,074	275,164
Elmira,	Elmira Savings Bank,	3,580	27	3,002
Fishkill,	Fishkill Savings Institution,	51,223	280	36,841
Flushing,	Queens County Savings Bank,	20,796	482	7,898
Hudson,	Hudson City Savings Institution,	83,686	533	66,139
Kingston,	Ulster County Savings Institut'n,	177,722	612	112,624
Lockport,	Niagara County Savings Bank,	4,692	35	1,768
Newburgh,	Newburgh Savings Bank,	240,328	1,576	178,335
Oswego,	Oswego City Savings Bank,	26,389	246	10,974
Peekskill,	Peekskill Savings Bank,	21,236	215	10,727
Poughkeepsie,	Poughkeepsie Savings Bank,	407,965	2,372	319,180
Rochester,	Monroe County Savings Institut.,	489,980	1,571	366,747
"	Rochester Savings Bank,	2,166,689	7,272	1,664,443
Rome,	Rome Savings Bank,	58,901	298	39,554
Sing Sing,	Sing Sing Savings Bank,	53,496	302	50,198
Southold,	Southold Savings Bank,	37,296	265	22,241
Syracuse,	Syracuse Savings Institution,	426,428	2,101	316,956
"	Onondaga County Savings Bank,	282,782	1,616	186,199
Tarrytown,	Westchester County Savings Bk.,	196,751	816	148,905
Troy,	Central Savings Bank,	40,361	215	46,020
"	Commercial Savings Bank,	169,949	810	112,586
"	Manufacturers' Savings Bank,	129,569	564	110,697
"	Mutual Savings Bank,	48,882	231	42,958
"	State Savings Bank,	95,449	500	78,927
"	Troy Savings Bank,	804,032	3,083	729,024
Utica,	Central City Savings Institution,	19,711	124	20,452
"	Savings Bank,	534,191	2,812	412,079
Watertown,	Jefferson County Savings Bank,	failed.	...	8,933
Yonkers,	Yonkers Savings Bank,	82,115	645	67,872
Norwich,	Chenango County Savings Bank,	10,540	29	....
Corning,	Corning Savings Bank,	471	23	....
Rhinebeck,	Rhinebeck Savings Bank,	7,288	85	....
Piermont,	Rockland County Savings Bank,	54	23	....
Sag Harbor,	Sag Harbor Savings Bank,	12,719	202	....
Totals, 1860—1861,		$11,669,825	55,208	$9,144,027

NEW-YORK LEATHER MARKET FOR 1860.

From the Shoe and Leather Reporter.

THE year 1860 will be long remembered by all who derive their income from the various branches of trade connected with the tanner's art as one of peculiar hardship. Those of the leather merchants who have a direct interest in the merchandise in which they deal, have been compelled to submit to loss upon a large portion of the stock which has passed through their hands, while the industrious and hardy tanners have, many of them, notwithstanding the most strenuous efforts, been obliged to witness the fruits of former and more prosperous seasons disappear as dew before the rising sun. They have been borne along by a current of circumstances, over which they could exercise no control, until ruin may be read in the fate of some whose industry, energy and perseverance should entitle them to a better fortune.

The heavy demand for boots and shoes which prevailed for all sections of the country, through the latter portion of the year 1858, and early the following year, stimulated the manufacturing interest to such an extent, that during the first half of the year 1859, an immense increase in the production called for large additional supplies of leather, which tanners and dealers were, at that time, poorly prepared to supply. In consequence, stock was hurried in from the tanneries, often badly tanned and worse finished, to supply the pressing demand at high and advancing figures. This elated the tanners, who rushed in the raw material to the fullest capacity of their yards, at the high prices which then prevailed. About the middle of the year 1859 it became apparent that the increase in manufacturing had far surpassed the requirements of the country, and an immense overstock of boots and shoes began to burden the market, while manufacturers, many of them unable to carry their stocks of made-up goods, soon commenced to curtail operations, thus causing a great decline in the demand for leather, which was now being turned out from the tanneries in increased amounts, and transferring the over-supply from the boot and shoe to the leather trade.

Against this over-production, those engaged in the manufacture and sale of leather have had to struggle during the past year, while, as a natural sequence, prices have declined and business become unhealthy and unsatisfactory. These circumstances have been greatly aggravated by the stubbornness which has characterized the market for hides, both green and dry, during almost the entire year, rendering it almost impossible for tanners to replace the stock on the market from fresh purchases of hides, without considerable loss at the prices at which they had been forced to sell.

A further obstacle against which the trade in this country have been obliged to contend, has been the unhealthy condition of the hide and leather business in Great Britain, and, to some extent, on the Continent of Europe. The immense interest which had become centered in these lines through England and Ireland, as is manifest by the great failures of the past summer, had for some time held the prices both of the raw ma-

terial and the manufactured article quite above their relative value as compared with other kinds of merchandise, and quite too high for healthy action under the natural law of demand and supply, thus exercising a great influence on the same branches of trade in this country.

Notwithstanding the unsatisfactory condition of the market through the entire year, there has been less speculation in leather, and less variation in prices for hemlock sole than for many years before. Buenos Ayres, middle weights, keeping within the range of 21 @ 22½ cents, and Orinoco, do., of 19 @ 21 cents, through the entire period. Oak sole has also partaken of the same steadfast characteristics, and shows a variation but a trifle larger than that of hemlock; while upper leather, particularly heavy finished of hemlock tannage, has passed through several long terms of general neglect, and ranged from 16 to 20 cents per foot.

Shortly previous to the commencement of the present year rather an active demand, partly speculative, was excited for hemlock sole, and prices slightly advanced. This, however, subsided early in January, and a slight reaction was experienced before the close of the month. February passed with a very limited inquiry from the Eastern trade and slight improvement in the market, with fair receipts from tanneries and some accumulation in the stock. Early in March, New-England manufacturers began to visit this market and purchase with some freedom, although in small amounts as compared with former years; still the demand from all sources exceeded the receipts from tanneries, somewhat reducing the heavy supply, with an improvement of about half a cent per pound, and a more cheerful feeling. Before the first of May the market again became dull and receipts more liberal, causing stock once more to accumulate. Oak sole, meantime, enjoyed a more steady though not active demand, both from the city and country trade. The sales in both oak and hemlock now became light and confined principally to Eastern customers, and so continued until near August, when Southern merchants began to make their appearance and add their demands to the existing trade. Prices, during this period, were not generally firm, but yielding according to the estimate put upon the paper offered by the purchasers. The month of August passed under a very limited inquiry, and most of September had expired before much activity was visible—hemlock sole still continuing in large supply—much of it held back at the tanneries for want of a suitable market. Prices, before the close of the month, under a more animated request from the New-England States, as well as from other sections of the country, and an advancing market for the raw material, realized a slight improvement. Sales, however, were not heavy. Manufacturers, willing to profit by the experience of the previous year, bought only to supply their immediate requirements, leaving tanners and dealers to carry the surplus stock. Trade, in October, during an exciting presidential canvass, which usually interferes to some extent with business affairs, remained dull and unsatisfactory. As soon as the result of the November election was known, and the political agitations increased, the call for leather rapidly subsided, and the market has since shown little indication of a speedy recovery.

The stock of hemlock leather (the distinctive feature of this market) now on hand, and in process of manufacture at the tanneries, is somewhat less than at the commencement of the year. A smaller quantity

of the raw material has of course been put into the vats than during the period of infatuation in 1859; but the future appears little less gloomy than in January last.

Imports and Exports of Leather at New-York for the Year 1860.

Imports.

6,336 packages, valued at $2,271,328.

Exports.

Destination.	*Quantity.*	*Value.*
Brit. N. A. Col.,	9,778 sides, 8,450 rolls,	$ 50,950
Liverpool,	609 sides, 4,014 rolls, 1,021 bales,	211,434
London,	163 bdls., 8 cases,	5,506
Glasgow,	370 sides, 83 rolls,	5,989
Galway,	96 rolls,	4,010
Havre,	11 cases,	5,250
Antwerp,	491 sides,	3,030
Hamburg,	23,368 sides, 3,543 rolls,	109,422
Bremen,	5,198 sides, 55 rolls,	25,171
Australia,	85 pkgs., 17 cases,	4,745
Canary Islands,	100 sides, 43 rolls,	1,983
China,	25 rolls, 11 cases,	2,066
Venezuela,	10 rolls, 2 cases,	840
New-Grenada,	3 pkgs., 9 cases,	1,490
British Guiana,	1,250 sides, 99 rolls, 10 cases,	6,984
Brazil,	5 cases,	$ 705
Argentine Republic,	5 cases,	483
Cisalpine Republic,	4 cases,	750
Chili,	4 cases,	1,070
Peru,	3 cases,	500
Hayti,	3 rolls, 1 case,	343
Cuba,	75 rolls, 111 cases,	15,639
Porto Rico,	14 pkgs., 3 cases,	484
Dutch West Indies,	409 sides, 31 rolls, 8 cases,	2,786
Danish West Indies,	99 sides, 79 rolls, 11 cases,	4,064
British West Indies,	87 sides, 2 rolls, 6 cases,	880
British Honduras,	60 pkgs., 52 rolls,	1,824
Mexico,	6 cases,	1,315
		$ 469,703

Total—42,254 sides; 10,665 rolls; 1,021 bales; 230 cases; 168 bundles; 112 packages.

Importations of Boots and Shoes; Japanned Leather; Skins tanned and dressed; Skivers; Bend, Sole and Upper Leather, at the leading Ports of the United States, for the fiscal year ending June 30th, 1860.

Ports.	*Boots and Shoes.*	*Japanned Leather.*	*Skins Tanned.*	*Skivers.*	*Sole & Upper Leather.*
New-York,	$ 40,533	$ 132,940	$ 927,495	$ 157,862	$ 1,383,562
Boston,	58,618	4,928	40,695	....	120,378
Philadelphia,	359	413	4,558	....	17
Baltimore,	86	843	327	....	....
New-Orleans,	10,249	9,806	140,772	....	....
San Francisco,	27,722	65	3,246	....	178
Total, six ports,	$ 133,067	$ 148,990	$ 1,117,093	$ 157,862	$ 1,454,135
Total, all other ports,	1,409	218	3,888	....	552
Total, United States,	$ 134,476	$ 149,208	$ 1,120,481	$ 157,862	$ 1,454,687

IMPORTS OF HIDES AT THE PORT OF NEW-YORK FOR THE YEAR 1860.

Compiled from the Weekly Official Tables of the Shoe and Leather Reporter.

Venues.	*Jan.*	*Feb.*	*March.*	*April.*	*May.*	*June.*	*July.*	*Aug.*	*Sept.*	*Oct.*	*Nov.*	*Dec.*	*Total* 1860.	*Total* '59.	*Total* '58.
Bahia,	....	....	130	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	130	47,506	15,719
Bathurst, (African,)	....	11,460	6,060	....	....	....	3,737	940	....	100	....	4,255	26,542	26 690	....
Buenos Ayres,	99,996	17,249	25,102	7,922	14,084	8,200	31,790	4,229	19,235	6,138	2,104	26,907	263,364	470,393	304,915
Carthagena,	....	....	....	2,250	....	55	....	....	666	....	....	378	3,379	27,921	....
Chagres,	9,551	7,158	6,012	5,975	8,925	4,157	15,579	3,060	6,768	....	7,584	3,218	77,582	97,663	....
Curaçoa,	1,041	....	210	714	....	803	....	668	322	1,094	....	768	5,690	8,043	4,806
Honduras,	....	110	3,406	4,328	1,662	2,758	....	3,754	840	....	3,882	569	20,781	....	....
Marseilles,	7,089	3,164	5,142	1,542	2,584	5,735	2,283	2,796	2,998	1,787	4,509	4,576	42,870	46,334	41,108
Maranham,	3,426	....	....	....	....	526	....	....	....	4,135	....	....	8,087	22,219	28,822
Mexican,	3,125	650	541	1,221	6,090	1,914	2,635	....	2,114	2,941	1,788	1,722	24,684	66,241	33,071
Monte Video,	25,592	....	11,151	....	3,013	5,310	5,355	....	....	....	1,225	25,678	82,264	184,996	72,365
Orinoco,	14,758	17,085	8,400	....	4,894	15,055	....	7,887	36,197	15,500	....	....	121,176	282,877	202,426
Para,	686	23	3,560	....	....	....	14	245	....	160	....	....	4,667	16,800	20,684
Porto Cabello,	....	486	2,629	....	2,618	529	6,318	....	1,172	3,410	401	7,389	24,952	25,860	45,145
Porto-au-Plata,	2,394	926	283	983	2,060	428	4,071	1,407	....	2,192	1,896	416	16,936	18,606	....
Rio Grande,	17,056	11,404	10,192	8,956	....	21,977	....	13,206	14,595	16,999	13,627	10,776	138,888	178,641	110,523
Rio Hache,	1,762	....	432	159	....	....	....	200	....	....	....	....	2,544	12,506	13,500
Savanilla,	2,218	3,180	3,518	3,056	6,596	5,635	2,354	3,328	4,171	....	5,955	4,248	42,248	28,547	....
Sierra Leone,	....	....	....	800	....	....	6,214	....	2,406	....	....	....	9,420	36,528	....
Singapore and Penang,	....	9,425	....	3,304	....	....	.. .	890	....	1,191	908	....	15,718	11,758	7,667
West India, &c.,	1,148	1,926	1,578	1,702	714	349	180	151	602	680	2,362	1,918	12,655	31,117	34,697
Sundry South American,	....	3,303	2,280	514	2,028	401	365	590	28	193	492	....	10,819	10,932	3,388
" Central American,	....	300	....	2,306	2,583	....	4,000	....	4,888	....	2,405	....	16 427	31,133	....
From Antwerp,	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1,955	....	....	....	1,955	6,552	36,647
" Hamburg,	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	...	....	....	....	....	....	49,080	125,219
" Havre,	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	24,369	30,183
" Liverpool,	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	42,077	11,556
" London,	....	....	....	....	....	...	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	11,860	10,089
" Marseilles,	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	19,368	....
Sundry foreign,	....	77	1,000	320	1,000	187	....	350	1,200	329	800	650	5,913	62,340	231,310
Total foreign, 1860,	198,375	97,211	91,448	51,212	59,265	73,322	84,845	49,646	99,667	57,217	58,433	96,416	992,622	....	....

Total foreign, 1859,	184,268	120,570	175,563	200,978	216,448	158,349	97,718	154,271	181,036	71,603	220,243	121,881	....	1,852,856	....
" " 1858,	57,393	32,554	32,838	66,736	92,172	145,241	119,088	94,006	133,762	279,312	122,694	218,987	....	....	1,488,286
DOMESTIC.															
California,	31,189	10,488	....	23,283	10,612	28,360	....	10,419	22,669	8,914	28,271	....	169,150	160,543	116,710
New-Orleans,	2,966	10,454	10,823	13,582	12,173	15,019	1,440	5,496	2,909	6,598	6,266	5,018	92,769	69,498	....
Texas,	20,735	11,592	15,826	23,858	39,820	13,495	12,391	16,764	....	7,134	22,979	23,625	212,769	101,147	70,689
Sundry coastwise,	5,469	6,174	25,868	11,188	8,344	16,142	1,509	879	8,625	20,987	37,854	15,555	158,344	122,427	299,400
By rail,	28,828	11,172	15,931	10,151	12,041	2,744	3,005	189	2,919	....	1,941	7,332	90,108	90,821	....
Total domestic, 1860,	83,787	49,825	68,498	86,512	82,990	70,760	18,345	33,747	36,422	433,628	97,311	51,860	723,685	....	....
" " 1859,	82,091	86,511	80,063	46,906	40,780	36,834	38,329	26,740	37,589	17,458	67,608	34,066	....	541,985	....
" " 1858,	38,682	27,982	28,518	91,443	42,210	74,776	18,263	19,182	39,177	42,288	58,025	35,738	....	....	516,806
Total foreign and domestic, 1860,	272,612	187,086	159,941	187,724	141,275	144,082	103,190	77,893	136,089	100,845	150,744	147,820	1,716,257	....	....
" " " 1859,	216,354	157,081	255,626	247,879	257,178	195,076	136,040	181,011	218,675	89,061	287,851	155,941	....	2,897,791	....
" " " 1858,	96,080	60,530	111,851	158,181	134,412	220,020	137,348	113,188	172,939	315,195	180,719	249,612	....	....	1,950,044
CALCUTTA, &c., IN BALES.															
Calcutta and East India,	173	292	250	341	24	15	207	882	159	141	....	110	2,094	1,781	....
From sundry foreign ports, mostly re-shipments of Calcutta,	....	14	79	....	6	85	....	25	....	....	....	....	159	823	....

IMPORTS OF HIDES AT NEW-YORK FOR THE PAST THIRTEEN YEARS.

YEARS.	*Jan.*	*Feb.*	*March.*	*April.*	*May.*	*June.*	*July.*	*Aug.*	*Sept.*	*Oct.*	*Nov.*	*Dec.*	*Total.*
1848,	109,324	54,400	112,782	118.976	94,160	26,957	109,761	97,495	58,963	58,710	40,219	101.016	972,654
1849,	70.929	65,431	112,604	135,448	114,144	70,502	155,260	74,527	46,290	146.584	64,946	178.025	1,229,737
1850,	118 830	141,900	58,200	118,400	144,500	146,400	118,000	117,965	169 900	88 100	120,700	156,000	1,483,395
1851,	115,500	103,000	134,100	136.000	114.150	78.000	100 000	108.480	110.900	110,600	118,000	142,400	1,366 030
1852,	50,000	101,000	76,000	75,500	139,000	93,800	93,800	140,600	103,000	70,000	195,000	235,000	1,437,200
1853,	50.000	78,000	130.540	110,100	117.460	99.000	111.500	150,000	105 500	71,800	164.200	71,700	1,259,800
1854,	178.519	121,758	130,247	108,900	198 956	125,650	176,700	142,635	142,500	135,800	125.000	98,860	1,679.995
1855,	106,200	76,200	108,500	168,800	127,700	144.700	93,600	128,000	160,800	156,700	116.000	170,800	1,550.000
1856,	212.108	118,259	101,898	208,500	208,864	139,212	91,816	129,817	121,648	143,951	150,977	130,887	1,715,900
1857,	128.109	228,190	120,908	152,697	210,518	122,929	150,144	114,729	81,742	171,577	164,188	160,477	1,796,758
1858,	96.080	60,530	111,851	158,181	134,412	220,020	137,348	113,188	172,939	315,195	180,719	249,612	1,950,014
1859,	216.351	157,084	255,626	247 879	257,178	195,076	136,040	181.011	218,675	89,061	287,851	155 941	2,897,791
1860,	212,612	187,086	159,941	187,724	141,275	144,082	103,190	177,393	136,089	100,845	150,744	147,826	1,716,257

NEW-YORK BOOT AND SHOE MARKET FOR 1860.

From the Shoe and Leather Reporter.

THE past year may be noted as one not generally satisfactory to the manufacturing interests of this department of business, while most of the jobbers have realized fair profits, although the amount of trade has generally fallen short of their anticipations. At the commencement of the year 1860, the prosperity in the commercial affairs of the country gave indications of an active and profitable business. The panic of the previous year, caused by over-production of the New-England manufacturers, had so reduced prices of many kinds, that during the last half of the year 1859 many of the large jobbing houses of this city were induced to purchase on a liberal scale, and thus early secure a stock for the ensuing spring trade, while the rates at which these supplies were bought were supposed to be, and undoubtedly were, in many instances, lower than the same article could be manufactured, thus encouraging holders to believe they would be able to defy all competition in prices at the early spring sales, which it was generally expected would be heavy, both to the Western and Southern States; to the latter, on account of the great prosperity which that section had enjoyed for some previous years, through her large and remunerative crops; to the former, on account of the caution manifested by the dealers, and the limited amount of boots and shoes shipped to that portion of the country since the great commercial panic of 1857. With neither of these sections, however, has the business of the past year equalled expectations, notwithstanding the unprecedented harvest and the general prosperity of the West during the first ten months of the year.

The month of January passed; Southern merchants scarcely began to make their appearance; and it became a subject of remark that Southern trade was coming in late. Travellers returning from that section of the country soon intimated that a large surplus of boots and shoes was remaining on hand, and that only moderate requirements for the spring business need be expected. To this was added, as a further discouraging feature, the report that many bills contracted the previous autumn would require an extension until a disposition could be made of stock on hand. Nearly the middle of March was reached before there was a moderate representation of the Southern trade in this market. Stocks were full, and prices continued low. For some new styles, however, which were less abundant, an advance was now obtained. The strike which was at this time taking place among the Massachusetts workmen rendered it difficult to obtain, at short notice, a full supply of all descriptions. During the latter part of March and the whole of April, tradesmen from the Western and Southwestern States came forward to a fair extent; but the lessons of 1857 did not seem to be lost upon them, for their purchases were characterized by much caution, and a decided preference for good substantial work, rejecting, at almost any price, the lowest class of Eastern manufacture, of which the market had been heavily stocked the

preceding year. It soon became evident that sales to the West, although trade appeared healthy, and the amount all that could reasonably have been expected, were not approaching the ideas of our sanguine dealers, and that they would not equal the purchases of the spring of 1859.

Trade with our own State, and some of those immediately adjoining, was steady and not below the average of previous years during the first half of 1860, while the aggregate sales to other sections of the country are variously estimated at 20 @ 25 per cent. less than during the same months in 1859. The wholesale houses and others engaged in manufacturing in this city, profiting by the experience of the previous years, cut up stock much more cautiously, studying more carefully the requirements of their customers, and awaiting, in many instances, actual orders before preparing their goods for market. This caution in management has enabled many of the manufacturers to realize, if not extravagant, at least fair profits during the larger portion of the year.

The month of July brought but few orders from any section of the country, and a considerable part of August passed before the Southern purchasers were fairly in the market. As in the spring, so in the autumn, trade from the Southern States came forward late, and to a much less extent than had been generally anticipated, while extensions upon bills previously purchased were not unfrequent, giving considerable anxiety to some of our dealers, even previously to the presidential election in November. Early in September the West was well represented in this market, and purchases, although made with much confidence and freedom, were devoid of that recklessness which characterized the operations of the early part of 1857. Notwithstanding the quantities required for this section were much less than had been estimated by many, a business fully equalling the average of the last five years has been realized. Western merchants extended the time of making their purchases over a somewhat longer period than usual, while from the more Southern country there was a gradual diminution of orders after the first of September, and almost an entire cessation before the first of November, since which date the political affairs of the country have not been such as to contribute to any improvement.

The year closes with a pressure upon many of our houses, brought about by the agitations of the country, which it is very difficult to withstand. Manufacturers have nearly ceased operations. A more than average stock of boots and shoes for the season remains in the hands of the trade, which, for cash, could generally be purchased at less than the cost of production.

Exports of Boots and Shoes from the several ports of the U. S., during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1860.

Ports.	*Amount.*	*Ports.*	*Amount.*
New-York,	$ 241,291	New-Orleans,	$4,128
Boston,	197,150	Vermont,	2,697
San Francisco,	101,555	Philadelphia,	2,494
Niagara,	116,281	Salem,	2,475
Passamaquoddy,	58,570		
Baltimore,	27,147	Total, 13 ports,	774,273
Oswegatchie,	11,148	Total, all other,	8,252
New-London,	4,539		
Buffalo,	4,798	Total, United States,	$782,525

Imports and Exports of Boots and Shoes at the Port of New-York for the Year 1860, with the Custom House Valuation.

Imports of Boots and Shoes.

223 packages, valued at $35,229.

Exports of Boots and Shoes.

Destination.	*Quantity.*	*Value.*	*Destination.*	*Quantity.*	*Value.*
Cuba,	347 cases,	$62,760	Peru,	114 cases,	$ 8,651
Gibraltar,	7 "	500	Hayti,	40 "	3,594
British Australia,	1,892 "	59,248	British West Indies,	670 "	33,186
" W. A. Colonies,	268 "	10,020	French "	10 "	237
" Honduras,	112 "	5,868	Danish "	150 "	10,907
Mexico,	29 "	1,344	Dutch "	19 "	1,003
Central America,	58 "	2,270	Porto Rico,	91 "	5,197
Venezuela,	64 "	3,740	Liverpool,	361 "	7,470
New-Grenada,	558 "	31,795	Havre,	33 "	2,058
Brazil,	75 "	7,795	Hamburg,	164 "	7,070
British Guiana,	11 "	521	China,	117 "	5,195
Argentine Republic,	671 "	26,657	Africa,	34 "	1,609
Cisalpine Republic,	204 "	4,000		"	
Chili,	230 "	13,642	Total,	6,231 "	$137,301

NEW-YORK HIDE MARKET FOR 1860.

From the Shoe and Leather Reporter.

The dry-hide trade of the past year has called forth, from those engaged in the importation, not only much energy, perseverance and patience, but a heavy outlay of money, and has been prosperous only by determined effort on the part of importers, excited by the great pecuniary interest which has been centering in this business for the last few years. The high prices to which hides were carried by the expansion and speculation of 1857, attracted the notice of hide-producing countries, and every available means was brought into requisition to increase the already numerous domesticated herds which roam over the *pampas* of South America; while the rifle and the lasso penetrated still further into the mountains. This stimulus has since gradually but largely increased the product in many sections both of the Eastern and Western continents. Notwithstanding the growing requirements for leather in this and other countries, the increase in the production of the raw material has more than kept pace with the demand, leaving a large surplus in the hands of the various branches of trade between the grower of hides and the consumer of leather. This surplus, in a country where capital is all fully employed, and money worth from seven to twelve per cent. per annum, must necessarily induce an unhealthy condition in some departments of the business, which, from the force of circumstances and the heavy amounts of capital employed in the importation of dry hides, has unfortunately, during the past year, borne heavily upon that class who are least able to support the loss—the manufacturers of leather. Wet salted hides for the first ten months enjoyed, proportionately, a greater degree of prosperity. The heavy requirements of some of the European

countries for this class of stock created, during the first half of the year, a demand in this city for slaughter hides which kept the market nearly bare.

At the commencement of the year there was a stock of over 200,000 hides in this market, much of which had cost the importers more than the current selling rates at that time, which were for Buenos Ayres 23 @ 24c., for Orinoco, 21½ @ 22c., and for country and city slaughter, 8½c. per lb. The demand at first was very moderate, stronger for a concession in prices than for quantity; this was steadily resisted by holders, and before the middle of January rates were advanced fully one cent per lb., which had the effect to stimulate quite an active trade for the season. During the month of February several considerable parcels of hides were shipped to Europe, a moderate inquiry only existing for tanning purposes. Meantime receipts had been heavy and the stock had accumulated to over 300,000 hides. Towards the middle of March many of the tanners who, on account of the disparity in prices of hides and leather, had been working in small amounts of stock through the winter, began to look anxiously about for a further supply, and to purchase more freely from the lower priced hides; leading descriptions being held firmly at extreme rates, while the demand for export continued, to some extent, for dry, and became active for wet salted at 9 cents per lb. cash. Receipts of both domestic and foreign continued steady; still, before the close of the month, sales in various directions had reduced the stock to 260,000 hides, and prices had advanced for Orinoco to 23, and for Buenos Ayres to 25 @ 25½ cents, with still an active trade in slaughter and all the common classes of dry hides.

Business from this time held on the even tenor of its way, the trade and tanners purchasing with great reluctance sufficient to keep their yards in operation, while a heavy stock of leather burdened the market at prices much below the cost of production at ruling rates for the raw material. Towards the middle of May, tanners being anxious to work in a large supply of hides before "the heated term," began to purchase in larger amounts, and rates for Buenos Ayres further advanced to 26 cents, and other kinds of dry hides proportionately. Before the close of the month the demand for export ceased for dry hides, because our stock was not suited to European markets, and for slaughter hides on account of the bad condition in which many lots had been shipped, rendering the traffic unprofitable. Sales were light and unsatisfactory, at prices slightly easier, until the middle of July, when intelligence of the failures and panic in England reached this city, causing, for a time, almost an entire suspension of business. Receipts, meanwhile, had surpassed the sales, and the supply on hand had again accumulated to over 300,000 hides, and before the close of the month to 340,305 hides and 474 bales do., the highest number held at any one time during the year. The market now became languid and prices began to recede, which, before the revival of trade, touched the figure of 21 @ 22 cents for Buenos Ayres, and 19 @ 21 cents for Orinoco. Country and city slaughter also sympathizing in the general depression, declined to 7½ @ 8 cents. A limited amount of dry hides, however, were purchased at these low rates. Before the first of September, as it became evident that the heavy stocks of the suspended firms in England were not to be thrown precipitately upon the market, importers began to strengthen their views, and an advance of one

or two cents was readily effected under an increasing demand from the trade.

Sales became generally active, and prices further advanced, until near the last of October, when the accepted rates for Buenos Ayres were 24½ @ 25 cents, and for Orinoco 23½ @ 24 cents. City and country slaughter found a ready market at 8½ @ 9 cents per lb. These rates continued with little variation, under an active request, gradually reducing the heavy supply on hand, until after the presidential election and the political agitations of the country had proved the source of a panic from which trade has not yet recovered. From the middle of November to the middle of December few transactions were effected, and prices declined to 5½ @ 6 cents for city slaughter, and 20 cents for Buenos Ayres, and proportionately on other descriptions; since which time an improved inquiry has been manifested, and a slight improvement realized. The year closes with a stock of 205,000 pieces, partly held above the current rates, which are 21 cents for Buenos Ayres, and 6¾ cents for wet salted city hides.

EXPORTS OF HIDES AND SKINS FROM NEW-YORK DURING THE YEAR 1860.

Destination.	*Quantity.*	*Value.*
Cuban,	2,000 hides, 27 pkgs.	$ 9,382
Mexico,	1 pkge.,	100
Brazil,	1 pkge.,	178
Chili,	....	....
Bristol,	675 hides,	4,829
Glasgow,	200 hides,	1,331
Liverpool,	36,701 hides, 310 pkgs.,	303,721
London,	5,392 hides, 1,038 pkgs.,	258,418
Havre,	55,349 hides, 556 pkgs.,	298,939
Bordeaux,	628 hides,	$ 3,254
Lisbon,	20 pkgs.,	250
Hamburg,	1,188 hides, 1,179 pkgs.,	139,595
Rotterdam,	3,355 hides,	24,802
Antwerp,	60,364 hides,	301,721
Bremen,	2,100 hides, 146 pkgs.,	55,672
Amsterdam,	240 hides,	1,607
Brit. N.A. Col.,	260 hides, 5 pkgs.,	2,475
Total,	168,452 hds., 4,283 pkgs.,	$1,406,274

Exports of Hides from the United States during the fiscal year, ending June 30, 1860.

Ports.	*Value.*
New-Orleans,	$ 314,200
Detroit,	251,877
New-York,	240,354
Vermont,	80,453
Philadelphia,	34,118
Charleston,	28,593
Champlain,	26,730
Texas,	14,855
Oswego,	14,117
Buffalo,	11,244
Chicago,	$ 6,856
Boston,	4,370
Oswegatchie,	3,294
Niagara,	2,532
Genesee,	850
Oregon,	800
Milwaukie,	550
Passamaquoddy,	467
Total, United States,	$ 1,036,260

REVIEW OF THE WINE AND LIQUOR TRADE FOR 1860.

Reported by J. A. SCHMIDT, *Broker*, 8 *Old Slip, N. Y.*

With importations of Wines, Brandy, Gin, Rum, Champagne, Porter, Ale, Cordials, Whiskey, Vinegar, Oil, Plums and Prunes, Cherries, Mustard, Sardines, Herrings, Anchovies, Sauce, Pickles, Capers, Preserved Fruit.

THE year 1860, in regard to the wine and liquor trade, has not been very favorable, and did not realize the hopes expressed in our report for 1859. With the exception of a short period, when the report of the reforms in the commercial relations between England and France aroused some speculative feeling—a general tranquillity was the chief feature of the market through the whole year.

The demand for foreign spirits, French and Spanish wines, being light, prices were weak, even at times when they were reported firm and advancing in France, and at several periods of the year, by comparing our prices with the quotations in France, it could be seen that goods sold here at the ruling market price could not be replaced but at higher cost.

This state of affairs is so much more to be regretted, as the crops of the past year in France—regarding the quality—are far inferior to those of 1857 and 1858, which cannot fail to have a discouraging influence on the trade.

But what makes the year 1860, perhaps, a remarkable one in the history of our liquor trade, is the first appearance of the MORRILL tariff bill, which, although it had not taken effect yet, made an unfavorable impression on any house connected with the trade, even by the mere idea of the possibility of its passing, and when in force will show itself ruinous to trade and importation.

Brandies.—The year opened with a heavy stock of nearly all kinds of liquors, principally of Brandies; but prices were firm, as only a small importation was looked for. Prices of the favorite brands of Cognac were then—

Vintage, 1858,	$2 80	@	$3 00
" 1857,	3 25	@	3 50
" 1856,	3 40	@	3 70
Rochelle Brandies,	1 60	@	2 00

The inquiry remaining small through all the month of January, and some holders exhibiting a desire to realize, prices became weak, until the middle of February, when the news of the reforms in the commercial policy of France, recently proposed by the Emperor of the French, by which it was believed the exportation of Brandy would be greatly increased to Great Britain, and doubtless diminish to this country, induced a speculative movement, and the sales, which were mostly to arrive, reached a higher figure than for some time past. This speculative feeling lasted till end of March, when market prices were as follows:

Cognac, 1858,	$3 00	@	$3 25
" 1857,	3 40	@	3 75
Rochelle Brandies,	2 00	@	2 30

From this time the market remained quiet and without any change in prices till the beginning of September, when, the accounts of the French vintage being unfavorable, it became more active, and there was a most lively demand, particularly for Brandies of 1858, which had become the favorite vintage on account of its fine quality. Nearly all the stock of this vintage (imported in 1859) was disposed of.

The unfavorable reports of the crops in France being continued, a fair activity ruled until the middle of November, since when the demand has been moderate till the end of the year.

From the prices named it will be seen that, though at some periods of the year large parcels have been changing hands, prices have appreciated but little, the quantity going into consumption always being small.

The current prices of the favorite brands of Cognac on the 1st of January, in the years named, are as follows:

Vintage.	1861.	1860.	1859.	1858.
1859,	$2 75 @ $3 00 ..	....	....	.. @ ..
1858,	3 00 @ 3 50 ..	$2 80 @ $3 00 ..	$1 65 @ $2 00 ..	.. @ ..
1857,	3 50 @ 4 00 ..	3 25 @ 3 50 ..	2 00 @ 2 25 ..	$3 50 @ ..
1856,	4 00 @ 4 25 ..	3 40 @ 3 70 ..	2 50 @ 3 00 ..	3 75 @ ..
1850,	5 00 @ 5 50 ..	5 00 @ 5 25 ..	4 00 @ 4 50 ..	5 75 @ ..
1848,	5 50 @ 6 50 ..	5 25 @ 6 00 ..	7 50 @ 5 25 ..	6 00 @ ..
Rochelle Brandy, ...	1 75 @ 2 10 ..	1 60 @ 2 00 ..	1 15 @ 1 40 ..	2 00 @ $2 50

Importations of Brandy.

	1860. *Packages.*	1859. *Packages.*	1858. *Packages.*	1857. *Packages.*
From Bordeaux, ...	21,482 ..	36,080 ..	12,377 ..	14,379
" La Rochelle, ...	6,374 ..	33,007 ..	7,160 ..	8,189
" Cette and Marseilles, ...	9 ..	12 ..	71 ..	292
" France, ...	27,865 ..	69,099 ..	19,608 ..	22,860

Gin has been without any remarkable change, and prices were generally corresponding to the quotations from Holland. They were, on the 1st of January, in the years named, as follows:

1856, ...	$1 30 @ $1 75	Duty 100 per cent.
1857, ...	1 20 @ 1 50	" " "
1858, ...	0 80 @ 1 10	" 30 "
1859, ...	0 65 @ 0 85	" " "
1860, ...	0 60 @ 0 85	" " "
1861, ...	0 55 @ 0 80	" " "

The importation of Gin has been increasing from year to year, as will be seen from the table p. 128.

Rum.—The importation, although it did not reach that of 1859, exceeded those of former years.

Imported from		1860.	1859	1858.	1857.
Jamaica, ...	Puncheons,	1,119 ..	1,173 ..	356 ..	826
St. Croix, ...	"	1,204 ..	1,139 ..	868 ..	868
Cuba, ...	"	191 ..	673 ..	60 ..	55
Porto Rico, ...	"	40 ..	75 ..	106 ..	.
England, ...	"	121 ..	98 ..	74 ..	28
Sundry ports, ...	"	48 ..	111 ..	166 ..	50
		2,723 ..	3,269 ..	1,690 ..	1,827

Prices have been without change, from 90 cents to $1 25 for Jamaica, and 65 cents to 75 cents for St. Croix. The superior qualities of Jamaica

Rum, which are received in smaller quantities from England, were held at $1 75 to $2 50.

Whiskey.—The importation was again in excess of former years, as may be seen by reference to the table appended. The demand was fair. Scotch from 85 cents to $1 30, and Irish $1 to $1 20.

French Wines were not in so good a demand as last year; prices in France were higher on account of the inferior crops of 1859 and 1860. The common qualities have to be quoted now—

Bordeaux claret, in casks,	$30 @ $40	Marseilles white wine,	$28 00 @ $35 00
" white wine,..	30 @ 40	Rochelle wines,.....	25 00 @ 30 00
Cette claret,.....	32 @ 40	Claret in cases,.....	2 25 @ 2 75
" white wine,.....	32 @ 40	Burgundy port,.....	1 00 @ 1 30
Marseilles claret,.....	28 @ 35		

The following shows the average prices of the lower qualities of French wines on the 1st of January of the years named:

	Bordeaux Wines.	*Cette Wines.*	*Cases.*
1856,.....	$45 @ $60 ..	$40 @ $55 ..	$2 75 @ $3 25
1857,.....	35 @ 45 ..	40 @ 50 ..	2 50 @ 3 00
1858,.....	30 @ 45 ..	30 @ 40 ..	2 25 @ 2 75
1859,.....	25 @ 30 ..	20 @ 30 ..	2 00 @ 2 25
1860,.....	32 @ 36 ..	30 @ 35 ..	2 25 @ 2 50
1861,.....	30 @ 40 ..	32 @ 40 ..	2 25 @ 2 75

IMPORTATION OF WINES FROM FRANCE.

	1860.			1859.			1858.		
	Hhds.	*Bbls.*	*Cases.*	*Hhds.*	*Bbls.*	*Cases.*	*Hhds.*	*Bbls.*	*Cases.*
From Bordeaux,.....	7,080	555	130,229	10,476	1,653	115,482	4,023	594	49,243
" La Rochelle,.....	20	..	120	344	108	100	..	..	24
" Marseilles and Cette,...	12,055	7,226	1,203	10,949	8,607	540	1,812	1,720	529
Total,.....	19,105	7,781	131,552	21,769	10,367	116,122	5,885	2,314	49,801

The importation of *Champagne* has exceeded again that of last year, and reached the high figure of 214,559 baskets, thus exceeding the quantity of all other wines imported in glass by 63,229 dozen bottles. Of leading brands have been imported by the different agents, 101,132 baskets.

German Wines have continued to be a favorite article, and there is hardly any kind of wines imported that met with so ready sale as Hock and Moselle wines. The following shows the extraordinary increase of importations within the last four years:

IMPORTATION OF GERMAN WINES.

	Casks.	*Cases.*		*Casks.*	*Cases.*
1857, ...	3,754 ..	13,582	1859, ...	10,427 ..	19,561
1858, ...	2,217 ..	7,511	1860, ...	9,147 ..	14,640

IMPORTATION OF WINES FROM SPAIN.

	Casks.	*Cases.*		*Casks.*	*Cases.*
1857, ...	13,476 ..	417	1859, ...	12,751 ..	115
1858, ...	3,790 ..	15	1860, ...	20,408 ..	608

IMPORTATION OF WINES FROM PORTUGAL.

	Casks.	*Cases.*		*Casks.*	*Cases.*
1857, ...	4,410 ..	102	1859, ...	744 ..	617
1858, ...	837 ..	1,288	1860, ...	2,682 ..	2,181

IMPORTATION OF WINES FROM MALAGA.

	Casks.		*Casks.*
1857, ...	5,109	1859, ...	2,276
1858, ...	1,288	1860, ...	3,130

IMPORTS IN 1860.—PORT OF NEW-YORK.

Vessels from:	Wines.			Brandy.	Gin.		Rum.	Champagne.	Porter and Ale.
	Hhds.	*qr. cks.*	*Cases.*	*Pkgs. average 32 galls.*	*Pipes.*	*Casks.*	*Puns.*	*Bask'ts.*	*Pckgs.*
Bordeaux,	7,030	555	130,229	21,492	..	..	..	..	..
La Rochelle,	20	..	120	6,374	..	..	..	..	..
Marseilles,	9,669	2,550	1,045	8	..	..	..	..	..
Cette,	2,856	4,676	158	1	..	..	..	..	..
Havre,	2 556	..	88	158	..	..	..	214,559	..
London,	697	206	893	957	244	..	66	..	14,220
Liverpool,	1,142	..	888	102	18	..	40	..	8,347
Glasgow,	18	..	1	154	30	..	15	..	8,708
Irish ports,	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	315
Hamburg,	405	200	647	4	..	..	..	..	110
Bremen,	405	..	601	24	..	..	..	..	100
Antwerp,	186	..	855	..	..	..	..	..	..
Amsterdam,	..	..	..	48	638	251	..	..	..
Rotterdam,	5,209	..	12,999	260	6.534	7,026	..	..	1
Malaga,	186	2,944	125	..	..	..	..	..	..
Spanish Ports,	1,330	19,078	608	..	..	..	..	..	..
Portugal,	168	2,514	2,181	..	..	..	..	..	..
Alicante,	..	1,846	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Madeira,	152	425	10	..	..	..	..	..	..
Italian Ports,	16	37	277	..	..	..	..	..	..
Sicily,	706	1,919	12	..	..	..	1,119	..	..
Jamaica,	5	..	..	..	..	..	1,204	..	..
St Croix,	..	..	..	..	..	..	40	..	..
Porto Rico,	..	..	..	..	..	..	191	..	..
Cuba,	68	..	1	110	..	..	27	..	..
West Indies,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
San Francisco,	68	..	138	42	..	..	21	..	..
Sundry Ports,	51	..	4	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total, 1860,	32,475	36 950	151,830	29,724	7,459	7,277	2,723	214,559	26 856
" 1859,	36,275	30,005	184,005	70,480	6,947	5,696	3.269	175,445	26,518
" 1858,	11,776	14,711	65,538	20.238	7.284	5,403	1,561	87,712	20,945
" 1857,	21,845	39,718	135 863	24 018	5,986	3,944	1,827	136,402	25,768
" 1856,	13,677	44,896	111,152	34,017	4,944	2,738	1,543	128,872	21,435

Vessels from:	Cordials.		Whiskey.	Vinegar.	Oils.		Plums and Prunes.		Cherries.	
	Cks.	*Cases.*	*Puns.*	*Casks.*	*Casks.*	*Cases.*	*Casks.*	*Cases.*	*Casks.*	*Cases.*
Bordeaux,	2	1,458	..	375	1	11,466	21,117	10,016	..	..
La Rochelle,	..	76	..	80	..	..	..	..	..	..
Marseilles,	6	1,204	..	..	473	72,682	..	..	..	..
Cette,	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..
Havre,	102	548	..	..	28	1	58	51	..	..
London,	..	..	202	104	358	..	..	..	..	..
Liverpool,	..	24	482	56	41	..	614	..	..	..
Glasgow,	..	..	1,063	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Irish Ports,	..	..	500	4	..	..	..	..	..	..
Hamburg,	10	1,390	..	2	6	..	348	..	141	..
Bremen,	..	..	..	..	..	..	245	..	..	..
Antwerp,	..	98	..	..	10	..	..	..	..	..
Amsterdam,	76	15	..	..	..	8	..	..	..	..
Rotterdam,	128	168	..	40	6	..	180	..	12	..
Malaga,	..	..	..	..	845	..	..	850	..	..
Portugal,	..	..	..	..	223	60	..	..	..	..
Italian Ports,	2	187	..	..	82	2,498	1,516	..	..	200
Sicily,	..	4	..	..	126	2,519	..	200	..	857
Jamaica,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cuba,	..	..	..	6	..	..	..	..	..	..
West Indies,	..	20	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
San Francisco,	..	..	..	..	156	..	..	..	..	..
Sundry Ports,	..	61	..	..	497	8	428	..	..	..
Total, 1860,	226	5,268	2,247	617	2,848	89,387	24,456	10,617	153	557
" 1859,	146	5,665	2,096	600	2,984	83,708	4,283	9,235	344	1,268
" 1858,	..	..	1.061	324	..	..	..	..	..	..
" 1857,	..	..	1,629	315	..	..	..	..	..	..
" 1856,	..	..	..	701	..	..	..	..	..	..

IMPORTS FOR THE YEAR 1859.—(*Continued.*)

Vessels from:	Fruits Pressed.	Mustard.		Sardines.	Herrings.	Anchovy.	Sauces.	Pickles.	Capers.
	Pkgs.	*Casks.*	*Cases.*	*Cases.*	*Kegs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*gs.*
Bordeaux,	4,798	..	3,445	9,758	..	1	..	524	290
La Rochelle,	..	..	..	875	..	..	..	..	..
Marseilles,	10	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,345	200
Cette,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Havre,	..	..	2	816	768	..	..	..	..
London	..	220	29	..	..	..	23	..	..
Liverpool,	..	558	78	..	..	..	816	..	..
Glasgow,	..	..	..	..	259	..	..	..	..
Irish Ports,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Hamburg,	25	..	..	..	129	..	..	..	..
Bremen,	..	..	..	..	100	..	..	..	..
Antwerp,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Amsterdam,	..	..	..	..	500	50	..	..	..
Rotterdam,	..	..	..	..	28,088	1,810	..	..	..
Malaga,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	19
Spanish Ports,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Portugal,	5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Alicante,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Madeira	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Italian Ports,	273	..	..	8	..	15	..	..	19
Sicily	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Jamaica,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..
St. Croix,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Porto Rico,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cuba	17	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
West Indies,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
San Francisco,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Sundry Ports,	..	..	24	..	..	..	..	8	100
Total, 1860,	5,128	778	3,578	10.447	29,889	1,876	839	2,873	628
" 1-59,	6,969	220	3,723	18,351	25,518	225	1,728	4,441	570
" 1858,	5,578	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
" 1857,	2,941	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
" 1856,	3,999	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

IMPORTS OF SHERRY, SICILY, RED, WHITE, CHAMPAGNE AND CLARET WINES INTO THE SEVERAL PORTS OF THE UNITED STATES DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1860.

PORTS.	Sherry.	Sicily.	Red.	White.	Champagne.	Claret.
New-York,	$ 347,657	$ 20,928	$ 357,726	$ 391,328	$ 1,024,822	$ 183,585
Boston,	47,886	7,115	3,966	....	49,384	932
San Francisco,	13,466	....	72,136	7,957	133,575	21,572
New-Orleans,	9,416	5,695	50,955	59,699	120,340	208,123
Baltimore,	6,430	569	299	....	1,443	2,753
Charleston,	2,311	....	466	1,430	1,540	246
Detroit,	1,297	....	....	....	503	....
Philadelphia,	995	942	1,382	869	1,740	3,070
Savannah,	562	....	....	....	52	....
Mobile,	315	....	....	....	168	168
Passamaquoddy,	268	13	41	....	....	....
Oswegatchie,	230	....	....	....	528	....
Texas,	175	950	....	312	250	1,039
Chicago,	152	....	....	....	....	....
Niagara,	97	....	....	....	18	....
Genesee,	30	....	....	....	....	....
New Bedford,	....	183	....	....	....	....
Norfolk,	....	....	28	....	10,974	3,062
Sandusky,	....	....	....	698	....	....
Cuyahoga,	....	....	....	122	....	....
All others,	....	....	....	....	588	975
Total U. S.,	$ 431,287	$ 36,395	$ 486,999	$ 462,415	$ 1,345,925	$ 420,475

REVIEW OF THE HEMP MARKET FOR 1860.

From Wood & Nichols' *Market Report.*

Manilla Hemp.—The history of this article for the last three years is characterized by a gradual decline in price, which, excepting slight and temporary interruptions, has continued through the past year. The decline was arrested in the spring at 6c., by a speculative feeling, based upon an advance in rates of freight at Manilla, and price was carried to 6¼c. This advance was soon lost, and market remained pretty firm at 6c., until late in the summer, when increased demand for consumption stimulated holders, and appreciation followed. The market afterwards again receded, and has been steadily drooping until now. The cause for this decline is sufficiently explained by the constant addition of large cargoes to an overstocked market; and, in many instances, the pressure of a heavy surplus has crowded the price below cost of importation. The gathering of this article in the provinces of Manilla was greatly stimulated by a demand for return freight from a rapidly increasing tonnage, consequent upon the development of the California trade. As supply was thus augmented, depreciation succeeded; and, in order to realize as much as when hemp commanded better prices, the decline has been followed by increased supply. This process has been going on until confidence has been weakened; and, as the production is inexhaustible, requiring no cultivation, the inquiry is suggested as to when it would touch bottom. It is thought that the limit is nearly reached, and that the effect of the present state of the market will bring the price to a point which will effectually stop the supply. Arrivals at Manilla to October 6th, 191,237 bales, against 181,326 do., same time in 1859.

Our statement exhibits a large increase upon the consumption of last year. This increase has been steadily growing, although for several years the shipping interest has been depressed, and the demand for its uses, which, in prosperous times, amounts to nearly one-third of the consumption, has been small. The low price of the material has undoubtedly contributed to the result. Early in the autumn a great impetus was given to trade by the sudden appreciation of a large crop of cereals; and manufacturers found plenty of employment with the greatly increased orders, resulting from the favorable turn of fortune at the West. An extraordinary prosperous career was suddenly checked, and the country agitated by a political excitement, that has entered, with its paralyzing influence, into every department of trade and industry. Demand has subsided and values become nominal. The last sale of hemp was made at a trifling concession from 5¾c. Buyers offer 5½c.

Stock in the country on the 1st January, 1857, 82,140 bales; same time in 1858, 69,683 bales; in 1859, 81,396 bales; in 1860, 84,594 bales; in 1861, 86,815 bales.

Stock in the country and afloat, January 1, 1858, 74,852 bales; 1859, 109,009; 1860, 113,513; 1861, 120,922 bales.

COMPARATIVE PRICES PER PICUL IN MANILLA, AND FREIGHTS, FOR FOUR BALES.

YEAR.	PRICES, HEMP. Highest Price.	Lowest Price.	Average Price.	FREIGHTS, HEMP. Highest Rate.	Lowest Rate.	Average Rate.
1850,.....	$6 50	$5 62	$6 25	$15 00	$10 00	$12 50
1851,.....	7 50	6 12	6 62	10 00	6 00	7 00
1852,.....	8 12	6 50	7 12	12 00	8 00	10 00
1853,.....	8 37	7 00	7 55	10 00	10 00	10 00
1854,.....	11 50	7 00	8 42	20 00	14 00	17 50
1855,.....	8 00	6 50	7 25	17 50	12 00	15 25
1856,.....	8 25	7 00	7 50	14 00	8 00	10 80
1857,.....	8 50	6 00	7 75	13 00	5 00	8 65
1858,.....	5 75	4 75	5 37	11 00	5 00	8 00
1859,.....	5 25	4 50	5 00	7 00	3 00	5 00
1860 to October,.....	4⅞	4½	4⅝	10 00	5 00	7½
Average from 1850 to 1859,	11 50	4 50	6 88	20 00	3 00	10 37

		Bales.
Stock in all hands January 1st, 1860,.....		84,594
Imports from January 1, 1860, to January 1, 1861,.....		144,491
		229,085
*Stock in all hands January 1, 1861,.....		86,815
Consumption for the year,.....		142,270

TOTAL EXPORTS FROM MANILLA TO THE UNITED STATES.

From January 1, 1860, to October 6, 1860,.....	115,128	115,128
Same time in 1859,.....		107,235
Showing an increase in 1860 of.....		7,893
Same time in 1858,.....	113,619	
Increase in 1860,.....	1,509	
Same time in 1857,..... 91,122		

TOTAL EXPORTS FROM MANILLA TO GREAT BRITAIN.

From January 1, 1860, to October 6, 1860,.....	34,792	34,792
Same time in 1859,.....		56,236
Showing a falling off in 1860 of.....		21,444
Same time in 1858,.....	35,913	
Decrease in 1860,.....	1,121	
Same time in 1857,..... 30,458		

COMPARATIVE IMPORTS.

From January 1, 1860, to January 1, 1861,.....		144,491
" " 1859, to " 1860,.....		132,298
Increase in 1860,.....		12,193
From January 1, 1858, to January 1, 1859,.....	128,782	
" " 1857, to " 1858,.....	119,659	

CONSUMPTION IN THE UNITED STATES.

1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
87,176	106,376	90,174	100,760	114,203	111,047	110,582	129,100	142,270

COMPARATIVE EXPORT OF HEMP TO UNITED STATES AND EUROPE.

Date.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.
To the United States,	51,097	71,566	110,257	102,292	114,008	107,290	156,198	121,655	144,476	142,328
To Europe,.....	10,608	15,402	13,871	8,467	47,801	11,881	19,699	47,991	52,816	65,336
Bales,.....	61,705	86,968	124,128	110,759	161,809	119,171	175,892	169,646	197,292	207,664

* Boston, New-York and Philadelphia.

ARRIVALS OF MANILLA HEMP.

1860.	Name of Vessel.	Where.	Bales.	Sales.
January 20,..	Comet,.....	New-York, ...	8,239	6¼ cents.
" 26,..	Asterian,.....	Boston,.....	5,963	....
February 10,.	Magi,.....	New-York,.....	3,719	6
" 14,.	Derby,.....	"	7,407	....
" 23,.	Leicester,.....	"	3,444	....
" 28,.	Wm. Sprague,.....	Boston,.....	3,591	....
March 8,....	Rockland,.....	"	6,267	6¼
" 13,....	Josiah L. Hale,....	New-York,.....	3,958	6 @ 6¼
" 20,....	Eastern Star,.....	"	5,362	6¼ @ 6½
" 23,....	Belvidere,.....	Boston,.....	7,342	6¼ @ 6⅝
April 11,....	Nabob,.....	New-York,.....	5,781	6¼
May 2,.....	Tsar,.....	"	1,810	6 1-16
" 10,.....	Fortuna,.....	Boston,.....	500	6 1-16
" 15,.....	Winged Arrow,....	"	4,540	6
" 15,.....	Aurora,.....	New-York,.....	7,844	6 afloat.
June 1,.....	Southern Cross,....	Boston,.....	3,548	....
" 12,.....	Sweepstakes,.....	New-York,.....	6,231	6
" 18,.....	Superior,.....	"	7,179	6
July 11,.....	Belle of the West,..	Boston,.....	2,860	6
August 30,...	Nestorian,.....	New-York,.....	5,266	6
" 30,...	Ringleader,.....	"	4,185	6 1-16 @ 6¼
September 12,	Malay,.....	Boston,.....	4,057	6¼
October 2,...	Nautilus,.....	"	1,120	6¼
" 5,...	Free Trade,.....	New-York,.....	6,430	6 @ 6¼
" 5,...	Reliance,.....	Boston,.....	1,917	....
" 12,...	Romance of the Seas,	"	4,825	....
" 30,...	Indiaman,.....	New-York,.....	1,666	....
November 27,	Home,.....	"	1,985	5⅝ @ 5¾
December 10,	Annie Bowen,.....	Baltimore,.....	285	....
" 14,	E. P. Stringer,.....	New-York,.....	7,675	5¾
" 23,	Starlight,.....	Boston,.....	5,250	....
" 29,	Kate Howe,.....	"	4,245	....

Jute.—The low price of Manilla hemp has brought that article in competition with jute during the past year, and, to some extent, has driven the latter out of the market. In view of the reduced stock at the commencement of the year, and the large falling off in shipments at Calcutta, holders were firm at $92 50 @ $95; but trade was dull, and manufacturers demanded lower prices. Market gradually yielded until early in the summer, when an unexpected demand came from the South for baling use, to supply the deficiency of Western rope. With moderate supplies, a gradual reduction of stock ensued, and holders became firmer. Later in the season, a prospective short supply induced manufacturers to buy freely, and the market became quite active. Appreciation rapidly followed, and sales were made as high as $110; but the advance has been strongly resisted, manufacturers contending that, so long as Manilla continues to decline, they must stop, unless jute can be obtained at lower rates. During the last month they have done but very little, and will only meet the pressing wants of the trade until a better chance for profit exists than they now have. A small lot was brought out from England, but her short supplies have not permitted our market to be relieved from that quarter. The crop of 1859 was small and of inferior quality. Good or even fair qualities have been scarce; and a

very inferior grade, known as *jute ends*, a new article in this market, has been sent here, and found buyers, because of its cheapness; but the quality is too poor to work to advantage, and sales are made with great difficulty. The new crop is spoken favorably of, both as regards quality and quantity. The shipments to England have been active, and, when the deficiency is made up, we shall look for lower prices at Calcutta and larger shipments to this country. The stock afloat is 4,562 bales, for Boston, including 2,898 bales of jute ends; 605 do. for New-York, and 200 do. for Philadelphia; altogether, 5,367 bales. Our statement shows a falling off in the consumption from last year, occasioned by the competition with Manilla hemp.

Stock on hand and afloat, 10,442 bales; same time last year, 13,825 do.; 1858, 26,903 bales. Of the present stock there are but 2,325 bales in New-York, Boston and Philadelphia, in first hands. At our close, price is nominal and no demand whatever.

	Bales.
Stock in all hands January 1, 1860,.....	12,700
Imports from January 1, 1860, to January 1, 1861, (including arrivals from England,).....	15,226
	27,926
Stock in all hands January 1, 1861,.....	5,075
Consumption for 1860,.....	22,851

EXPORTS FROM CALCUTTA TO THE UNITED STATES.

From January 1, 1860, to November 1, 1860, (including 3,368 bales jute ends,).....	16,021
From January 1, 1859, to November 1, 1859,.....	14,050
Increase in 1860 of.....	1,971

COMPARATIVE IMPORTS.

From January 1, 1860, to January 1, 1861,.....	15,026
" " 1859, to " 1860,.....	22,931
Decrease in 1860 of.....	7,905

EXPORTS FROM CALCUTTA TO ENGLAND.

From January 1, 1860, to October 31, 1860,.....	222,928
" " 1859, to " 1859,.....	278,644
Falling off in 1860 of.....	55,716
Exports to England in 1859,.....	362,357
" " in 1858,.....	392,781
" " in 1857,.....	202,806

CONSUMPTION IN THE UNITED STATES.

1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
13,641	16,104	26,095	22,851

REVIEW OF THE TOBACCO MARKET FOR THE YEAR 1860.

By Messrs. T. & H. Messenger.

The stocks held this side of the Atlantic and in Europe on the 1st of January were placed at 96,000 hhds., an increase of 12,000 hhds. compared with same time the year previous. This liberal supply, added to the extreme estimate of the incoming crop, viz., 227,000 hhds., (which subsequent receipts proved to be short of the reality,) acted as an incubus to any advance in the value of this staple; and had the crop under culture resulted in a full average, we doubtless should have witnessed a feeble market throughout the year.

We proceed briefly to delineate the prominent features of the season. The demand for the closing winter months proved a fair average, the sales rather exceeding 2,000 hhds. at full quotations for the better grades, while inferior were less firm. The spring opened with a light demand and prices rather drooping, May closing with a declension in prices for inferior and medium of ¼ @ ½c. The market remained inanimate until near the close of summer, with limited sales, inferior grades exhibiting a further decline of ¼ @ ½c. without leading to increased activity. The chief notable circumstance was the rapidly accumulating stock, which now reached the unprecedented total of nearly 15,000 hhds. The prevailing lethargic feeling at length gave way, and ere the opening fall, an active demand sprang up, induced by an apprehension of a large diminution in the growing crop from the effect of drought, resulting in an increased volume of transactions partly speculative, without, however, immediately advancing prices. As the season progressed, additional stimulus was imparted by reiterated statements of damage sustained by the crop, which was followed by large transactions, the sales for September and October reaching nearly 5,000 hhds., with a responding advance of ½ @ 1½ cents, the better classifications being most favorably affected. We regret that it is not in our power to follow up this favorable change, the business in the closing fall month being brought to a stand by political vicissitudes, which have had a paralyzing influence on commerce generally. And although tobacco has maintained its position favorably, compared with other staples, and holders appear comparatively firm, there is no disguising the fact that present quotations should be deemed nominal, and will simply indicate to the reader about where the market left off.

Regarding the crop we have been treating of, our favorable expectations of its quality were far from being realized, there being a sad deficit of sweet fleshy leaf, as also a very meager supply of desirable African and West India sorts. The bulk of the excessive stock held here consists of medium and nondescript, for which there is but little inquiry, and we apprehend losses will occur in its realization; while really desirable, from comparative scarcity, will probably be better maintained. As to the extent and quality of the new crop, opinions are somewhat at variance; that there will be a deficiency in length, and an absence of dark rich leaf and choice manufacturing, there remains but little doubt. We retain our usual practice of rendering the outside estimated growth, as we discover, on referring to many past years, it generally comes within the compass of actual results.

The year will open with stocks of the world, amounting, in the aggregate, to 146,496 hhds., or in excess beyond those of last year of 50,496 hhds. Of the future course of the market we advance no opinion. We invite the attention of the reader to the following statistics:

Inspections.	Kentucky.	Virginia and N. Carolina.	Ohio.	Mid.	Total.	1st January.
	Hhds.	*Hhds.*	*Hhds.*	*Hhds.*	*Hhds.*	*Hhds.*
1851,.....	12,285	635	6	100	13,046	6,374
1852,.....	20,107	361	1	3	20,472	5,096
1853,.....	11,284	167	2	4	11,457	9,640
1854,.....	9,295	295	21	..	9,611	7,555
1855,.....	8,700	1,779	21	..	10,500	3,588
1856,.....	12,683	2,009	9	..	14,701	2,575
1857,.....	8,963	1,376	..	..	10,339	5,747
1858,.....	16,091	2,114	..	..	18,205	4,654
1859,.....	12,666	1,190	..	11	13,867	9,461
1860,.....	20,815	3,474	5	..	*24,294	8,644

Stocks.	1858.	1859.	1860.
	Hhds.	*Hhds.*	*Hhds.*
January,.....	4,044	9,461	8,644
February,.....	3,967	8,490	8,272
March,.....	3,980	8,049	8,119
April,.....	3,757	8,212	8,303
May,.....	4,403	8,074	8,679
June,.....	6,034	8,216	10,869
July,.....	8,894	10,515	13,368
August,.....	10,326	12,368	14,613
September,.....	11,595	12,413	14,913
October,.....	11,741	12,212	15,283
November,.....	10,865	9,929	15,415
December,.....	10,210	9,148	15,833

SALES FOR 1859-1860.

Months.	1859.			1860.		
	Kentucky.	Maryland.	Virginia.	Kentucky.	Maryland.	Virginia
	Hhds.	*Hhds.*	*Hhds.*	*Hhds.*	*Hhds.*	*Hhds.*
January,.....	900	..	50	1,425	....	75
February,.....	300	..	40	600	..	25
March,.....	1,300	..	100	950	..	..
April,.....	650	50	75	600	..	100
May,.....	650	..	40	670	..	70
June,.....	350	..	..	700	..	100
July,.....	800	..	..	700	35	50
August,.....	800	..	..	1,200	..	150
September,.....	1,200	..	25	2,250	..	75
October,.....	1,300	100	..	2,000	..	500
November,.....	1,200	..	25	650	..	75
December,.....	970	..	25	425	..	50
Total,.....	10,420	150	380	12,170	35	1,270

January 1st, 1861, stock on hand,..... 19,048 hhds.

* Including all inspections.

STOCKS IN WAREHOUSE AT THE PRINCIPAL MARTS, JANUARY 1ST.

	New-York.	*New-Orleans.*	*Baltimore.*	*Virginia.*	*Philadelphia.*	
1859,.....	9,461	*20,858	8,500	890	560	Total, 40,179 hhds.
1860,.....	8,644	19,546	15,500	200	742	" 44,632 "
1861,.....	19,043	13,271	24,500	22,366	853	" 80,033 "

STOCKS IN EUROPEAN MARTS, DECEMBER 1ST.

	Liverpool.	*London.*	*Bremen.*	*Holland.*	‡*Other Ports.*	
1858,.....	14,015	†13,723	†7,020 leaf.	†6,295	†3,230	Total, 44,283 hhds.
†1859,.....	15,581	†18,829	†7,493 "	†7,000	†2,850	" 51,735 "
†1860,.....	17,538	†22,445	†6,747 "	†17,094	†3,329	" 67,653 "

INSPECTIONS FOR THE FISCAL YEAR.

	New-Orleans.	*Virginia.*	*Baltimore.*	
1857–58,.....	68,075	72,696	70,669	Total, 211,440 hhds.
1858–59,.....	56,450	68,953	62,546	" 187,949 "
1859–60,.....	62,113	76,997	78,291	" 217,421 "

Total receipts at New-Orleans, 1857–58,..... 87,144 hhds.
do. do. 1858–59,..... 75,925 "
do. do. 1859–60,..... 80,925 "

Manufactured Tobacco.—It will require but a short space to chronicle the prominent characteristics of the past year's transactions, which we regard, as a whole, unfavorable to parties interested. The winter business resulted in sales analogous to those of the previous season, without change in prices. The spring transactions came short of anticipations, while the market flagged and quotations were scarcely supported. Summer passed without any prominent change either in value or demand, the latter of which continued dormant, with more than usual pressure on the part of the seller to realize. The weighty stock which had run up in August to 74,000 packages, added much to the embarrassment of the agents at this period. The opening fall offered but little encouragement, and although the sales formed a fair average, a prevailing heaviness was the leading feature, while work suitable for the Southern trade receded in value, owing to the absence of demand. A returning vitality was observable during the month of October when free sales were effected with a promising future, resulting only in disappointment from local troubles. The market relapsed into a state of comparative torpor, the year closing with a large diminution in sales.

We regret that it is not in our power to give the official sales and stocks for the past three months, making a break which we have filled by estimate, varying but little, we apprehend, from the true result. It will be discovered that there has been a diminution in receipts compared with last season of about 40,000 packages. We again repeat that the stock on hand is given by estimate, and is much larger than was anticipated, particularly as the receipts for the closing month were very light; the almost entire cessation of business has brought about this result. The most favorable feature is the probability that there is less in second hands than for many years past, while the interior is in light supply. Hence the revival of business would at an early day place the agent in a stronger position. Included in the gross receipts are re-shipments to foreign markets.

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* Estimated growth for 1860—Kentucky, Tennessee and Missouri, 60,000; Virginia, 70,000; Maryland, 45,000; Ohio, 12,000; total, 187,000 hhds.

† Latest mail advices.

‡ Ports in Great Britain, Ireland and Scotland, assumed to approximate to the stock of December, 1858.

RECEIPTS.		SALES.		STOCKS.	
		For 1859 and 1860.		For 1859 and 1860.	
Packages.		*Packages.*	*Packages.*	*Packages.*	*Packages.*
1849,..... 117,594 ..	January,....	14,727 ..	13,184 ..	30,655 ..	49,024
1850,..... 162,341 ..	February,...	15,089 ..	17,101 ..	30,799 ..	46,649
1851,..... 163,210 ..	March,.....	19,254 ..	14,376 ..	34,895 ..	55,028
1852,..... 176,339 ..	April,.....	16,741 ..	16,243 ..	39,397 ..	54,562
1853,..... 215,698 ..	May,.....	13,148 ..	13,762 ..	45,410 ..	58,229
1854,..... 134,007 ..	June,.....	16,037 ..	12,873 ..	50,162 ..	61,638
1855,..... 165,197 ..	July,.....	17,276 ..	18,627 ..	56,493 ..	70,677
1856,..... 260,768 ..	August,.....	24,047 ..	16,623 ..	53,185 ..	74,607
1857,..... 199,878 ..	September,...	26,610 ..	25,171 ..	45,240 ..	62,628
1858,..... 252,374 ..	October,....	19,655 ..	*20,500 ..	43,623 ..	*59,961
1859,..... 322,048 ..	November,..	14,575 ..	*9,000 ..	48,281 ..	*65,348
1860,..... 281,629 ..	December,...	10,464 ..	*6,000 ..	55,202 ..	*67,367
	Total sales,.....	207,623 ..	181,360		

Seed Leaf.—We have seldom witnessed a more unsatisfactory year than the past, both to the producer and dealer, prices having ruled very low compared with former seasons. The market during the winter and spring evidenced but little vitality, while the summer passed with but few transactions, and holders, discovering little prospect of realizing at the home market, commenced exporting on a large scale; but even this relief did not produce any appreciable benefit, and the sluggish feeling continued until fall, when a more cheerful aspect ensued.

The recorded sales for September of 5,000 cases, gave an improved tone to the market. Subsequently exporters purchased with freedom, confining their selections more particularly to the inferior grades, the figures for which were low. The season closes with a moderate prospect for the future. Regarding estimates of the crops, we find great discrepancy, and hence defer figures; they will probably result somewhat less than last year's, but with the old stock on hand will doubtless be ample for all purposes. The crop of Connecticut is said to be unusually good, but little, if any, of the different growths has been disposed of.

Florida.—The crops of Florida are becoming each year of less importance, this season's production being placed at 1,000 cases, nearly one-half of which is in port. Of the quality, we simply say that it is decidedly inferior and the color imperfect, hence the article attracts but little attention.

Foreign Tobacco.—Taken as a whole, the year just terminated has been generally satisfactory to those concerned, results usually proving remunerative, and at no time have the stocks been excessive. Cuba, which has been imported on a larger scale, has met with an improved demand, and prices exceeding last year's were realized. In Yara, the dealings have been unusually large, the article being used to some extent as a substitute. The crop of Havana possessed some choice parcels, but the larger portion was deficient in body and flavor. We commenced the year with a very light stock, and a demand corresponding. Holders are generally firm.

* Estimated.

Importations and Stocks.	Cuba.	Havana.	Yara.	Other descriptions.	Total.
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*
Importations in 1858,..	20,618	32,179	8,064	15,319	76,180
do. do. 1859,..	5,045	31,398	14,454	3,829	54,726
do. do. 1860,..	8,207	35,221	7,149	270	50,947
Dec. 31, stocks, 1858,..	4,908	5,997	2,734	740	14,379
do. do. 1859,..	522	4,409	5,211	64	10,206
do. do. 1860,..	792	5,137	1,964	75	7,968

Statement exhibiting the quantity and value of Tobacco exported annually from the United States from 1821 *to* 30*th June,* 1860.

Years.	Bales.	Cases.	Hogsheads.	Value.
1821,.....	....	....	66,858	$ 5,648,962
1822,.....	....	....	83,169	6,222,838
1823,.....	....	....	99,009	6,282,672
1824,.....	....	....	77,883	4,855,566
1825,.....	....	....	75,984	6,115,623
1826,.....	....	....	64,098	5,347,208
1827,.....	...	....	100,025	6,577,123
1828,.....	....	....	96,278	5,269,960
1829,.....	....	....	77,181	4,982,974
1830,.....	....	....	83,810	5,586,365
1831,.....	....	....	86,718	4,892,388
1832,.....	....	....	106,806	5,999,769
1833,.....	....	....	83,153	5,755,968
1834,.....	....	....	87,979	6,595,305
1835,.....	....	....	94,353	8,250,577
1836,.....	....	....	109,042	10,058,640
1837,.....	....	....	100,282	5,795,647
1838,.....	....	....	100,593	7,392,029
1839,.....	....	....	78,995	9,832,943
1840,.....	....	....	119,484	9,883,957
1841,.....	....	....	147,828	12,576,703
1842,.....	....	....	158,710	9,540,755
1843,.....	....	....	94,454	4,650,979
1844,.....	....	....	163,042	8,397,255
1845,.....	....	....	147,168	7,469,819
1846,.....	....	....	147,998	8,478,270
1847,.....	....	....	135,762	7,242,086
1848,.....	....	....	130,665	7,551,122
1849,.....	....	....	101,521	5,804,207
1850,.....	....	....	145,729	9,951,023
1851,.....	....	....	95,945	9,219,251
1852,.....	....	....	137,097	10,031,288
1853,.....	....	....	159,853	11,319,319
1854,.....	....	....	126,107	10,016,046
1855.....	12,913	13,366	150,213	14,712,468
1856,.....	17,772	9,384	116,962	12,221,843
1857,.....	14,432	5,631	156,848	20,662,772
1858,.....	12,640	4,841	127,670	17,009,767
1859,.....	19,651	7,188	198,846	21,074,038
1860,.....	17,817	15,035	167,274	15,906,547
Total, 39 years,....	95,225	55,445	4,601,292	$ 355,181,067

THE CURRANT TRADE.

Annual Review for the year 1860.

The importation of currants into the United States beginning to become important, it is necessary to give some information concerning its cultivation and consumption, and duties it is submitted to in foreign countries. The sea provinces of Peloponnesus, in the Corinthian Gulf, and the shores of Argolide and Messina, and the Ionian Islands, Zante and Cephalonia, are the sole countries which produce this fruit. Several landholders, considering the great increase of consumption of this article, tried to cultivate it in other parts of Greece, but they were greatly disappointed, because the first year the vine produced currants, but the second it produced grapes.

During the period that Greece was under the dominion of the Turks the cultivation of currants was very inconsiderable, and during the Greek revolution (1821—1827) the vines were destroyed by the Turks, and up to the year 1833 the cultivation of this fruit did not make any material progress. But since that year, when a law of donation of public lands to the inhabitants has been promulgated, the cultivation began to increase steadily, so that to-day the cultivation of currants in the Kingdom of Greece covers an area of land not less than 300,000 stremas.

In the years 1833—1836 the production of currants scarcely amounted to 6,000,000 @ 10,000,000 pounds. But in the year 1851 the production reached the large amount of 70,000,000 pounds. The sickness of the vines destroyed the crops of the years 1852, 1853 and 1854, so that in the year 1855 the crop amounted to 8,000,000 pounds of excellent quality, produced principally from young branches touching the soil; this experiment and the use of brimstone improved the culture, and in 1856 the crop amounted to 40,000,000 pounds. If heavy rains had not occurred during the collection of the fruit in 1857, the crop of that year would have reached 60,000,000 pounds. Without the ravages of the oidium and the weather the vines of Greece may produce annually 120,000,000 pounds; to this amount, if we add 30 @ 35,000,000 pounds capable of production in the Ionian Islands, we have an annual production of 150,000,000 pounds, which amount, if ever produced in one year, prices will certainly decline to a point not even covering the expenses of the cultivation, and in that case many of the plantations will be abandoned. For this emergency a company has been formed in the city of Patras for the promulgation of the consumption of currants by exporting them to every possible place where there is a probability of consumption, and another company went into operation for the manufacture of wine out of currants. But both these companies have failed in their endeavors to promote the interest of the cultivators of currants.

Prices.—Although Greece has the monopoly of the production of currants, prices are very irregular, being based on the quantity and quality of the crop and the general demand. During the Greek revolution currants, being exported with difficulty and paying irregular duties, were sold at prices varying from $60 @ $120 per 1,000 pounds. In the years

1829—1833 prices were between $25 and $35, owing to the poor quality of the crop. Since 1834, when the import duties in England were reduced, and up to the year 1841, prices were varying from $50 @ $80. In the year 1844, the import duty in England being again reduced, currants in that year sold at $40, in 1845 at $45, and in 1846 and 1847 at a little above $50. About that time, the production having reached a high figure, and the consumption not being in proportion, prices fell considerably, the fruit selling in 1851 as low as $10. That year the sickness in the vines made its appearance and prices went up again, so that in the years 1852 to 1855 from $80 @ $110 were paid. In 1856, the crop being more abundant, prices ranged from $70 to $80; in 1857 they were $63, and in 1858–59, $35. In 1860 prices opened at $32 per 1,000 pounds, but drooped down to $16, and went up again to $25. We have no correct return of the last year's crop, but it is said to amount to 80,000,000 pounds from Greece alone. It is calculated that the price of $25 covers all the expenses of the cultivator and even leaves a small profit.

Export.—The principal market for currants is England, where all classes eat them, and the importation there reaches, on an average, annually, 50,000,000 of pounds; and this year, on account of the reduction of duty to seven shillings per 112 lbs., it is supposed that England will consume about 80,000,000 lbs. Germany comes next to England, taking about 12 @ 18,000,000 lbs. The United States come after, having imported, for the year ending 31st March, 1861, 4,225,385 lbs. The importation of the year 1859 was nearly double that of the present one, and enough to last for the consumption of two years; but in the month of February, 1860, England having reduced the duty from 15s. 9d. to 7s. per 112 lbs., and therefore the consumption there being on the increase, several importers were induced to export to England, and about 3,000,000 lbs. were exported there, so that it is apparent that the United States cannot consume much above 4,000,000 lbs.

In Russia currants are almost unknown.

Duties.—The duty in England has been reduced from 15s. 9d. to 7s. per 112 lbs.

In Austria the duty is five florins per quintal, (say 120 lbs.,) or $23 per 1,000 lbs.

In Holland, where two to three millions lbs. are imported annually, the duty is only $1 83 per 1,000 lbs.

In Greece the export duty, up to 1857, was $2 per 1,000 lbs.; in 1858 it was reduced to 83⅓ cents; but last year it was raised to 19 drachms, or $3 16 per 1,000 lbs.

Importation of Currants into the United States.—About twenty-two years ago currants began to be imported into the United States, and the cheap prices prevailing for a long time made this fruit to be within the reach of all classes, and between 3,000,000 @ 4,000,000 lbs. were annually consumed, the price being about 4½ @ 5 cents per lb.; but since the year 1851, when the sickness of the vines prevailed, the prices were pushed up from 5 to 25 cents per lb., and the importation into this country was almost stopped, so that in the year 1854 we find that the importations amounted only to 219,118 lbs., which was sold at an average price of 20 cents per lb.

IMPORTATION OF CURRANTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FOR THE LAST TEN YEARS, AND THEIR VALUE AT THE PORT OF EXPORTATION.

	Pounds.		*Value.*
Year 1851,.....	3,249,418	....	$ 133,870
" 1852,.....	4,758,008	....	143,343
" 1853,.....	1,039,435	....	40,893
" 1854,.....	219,118	....	23,995
" 1855,.....	1,626,070	....	94,389
" 1856,.....	1,468,261	....	127,089
" 1857,.....	2,488,912	....	151,418
" 1858,.....	3,965,721	....	342,869
" 1859,*.....	7,149,363	....	319,326
" 1860,.....	4,225,385	....	138,890
	30,189,691	....	$ 1,516,082

Prices of Currants in New-York.—The prices from the year 1851 to 1853 averaged from 7 @ 10 cents per lb.; but in 1854 to 1855, after the sickness of vines in Greece, prices went up to 25 @ 30 cents, and in 1856 they went down again to 15 cents. In the years 1857 and 1858 they were selling from 6 @ 7 cents; and in 1859 and 1860, the crop being abundant, prices were as low as 4 @ 5 cents per lb.

The following table will show the ordinary prices of currants in New-York for the last ten years:

YEARS.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.
1851,.....	— @ 7¾	— @ 7¾	7½ @ 7¾	7½ @ 7¾	7 @ 7½	6½ @ 7
1852,.....	— @ 5	4¾ @ 5	4¾ @ 5	4¾ @ 5	4¾ @ 5	4¾ @ 5
1853,.....	9 @ 9½	9¾ @ 10½	10 @ 11	10 @ 11	10 @ 11	12 @ 12½
1854,.....	20 @ 21	19 @ 21	19 @ 21	18½ @ 21	18½ @ 21	19 @ 21
1855,.....	15 @ 25	15 @ 25	14 @ 25	15 @ 22	15 @ 22	15 @ 25
1856,.....	12 @ 25	15 @ 25	22 @ 23	22 @ 24	22 @ 24	22 @ 23
1857,.....	18 @ —	17 @ 17½	17 @ —	16½ @ 17	16 @ 16½	16 @ 16½
1858,.....	9 @ 10	9½ @ 10	9 @ 10	9 @ 10	8 @ 9	7 @ 8½
1859,.....	7 @ 8	7 @ 8	5 @ 6	4½ @ 5½	5½ @ —	5½ @ 5¾
1860,.....	3½ @ 4	4½ @ 5	4½ @ 5	4½ @ 5	4½ @ 5	4 @ 4¾

YEARS.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
1851,.....	6¾ @ 7	6½ @ 6½	6½ @ 7	6 @ 6½	5½ @ 5½	5 @ 5½
1852,.....	5 @ 5½	5½ @ 6	8½ @ 9	8 @ 8½	9 @ 9½	9 @ 9½
1853,.....	14 @ 15	15 @ 16	18 @ 19	19 @ 20	19 @ 20	18 @ 19
1854,.....	19 @ 21	25 @ —	25 @ 27	20 @ 30	20 @ 26	20 @ 25
1855,.....	15 @ 25	15 @ 25	15 @ 24	20 @ 27	20 @ 27	12 @ 25
1856,.....	20 @ 23	20 @ 23	20 @ 24	22½ @ 25	22½ @ 23	20 @ 21
1857,.....	12½ @ 13	9 @ 10	11 @ 12	11 @ —	10 @ 12	9 @ 10½
1858,.....	7½ @ 9	7½ @ 9	7½ @ 9	5½ @ 6½	8 @ 8½	7½ @ 8½
1859,.....	5 @ 5½	5½ @ 5¾	4¾ @ 6	7¾ @ 8	6½ @ 6¾	6 @ 6½
1860,.....	4 @ 4¾	4 @ 4½	4 @ 4½	4¾ @ 5½	5 @ 5½	3½ @ 4½

* Of this amount, 3,000,000 lbs. were exported to England.

REPORT ON THE CALIFORNIA TRADE,

For the Year 1860.

The year 1860 was marked with a falling off in the quantity of supplies sent from Eastern ports to California. The decrease was mainly in articles of food and in the matter of cured provisions, the experience of the past year would seem to indicate that the State will need no further supplies from abroad. Notwithstanding the diminished ventures by shippers the past year, the returns have been of the most unsatisfactory character. Early in the season the emigration to the Washoe silver district completely unsettled trade in nearly every part of the State. The traders stopped buying goods until their stocks were entirely exhausted, uncertain as to the number of their customers the excitement would carry away to the new Dorado. The consequences were, that during the first five months of the year there were fewer goods taken out of the San Francisco market than probably ever before during a similar period. A speculation on a large scale, in staple articles, initiated early in the year, and which promised to be successful, finally broke down for the lack of any demand from the country, and was productive of a double injury to the market by inducing large shipments from this side which could not be placed by invoice upon arrival or since, without submitting to large losses. The market for groceries and provisions ruled dull throughout the entire year; in the latter half there was more activity, but the San Francisco jobber and the interior trader alike bought only to supply immediate wants, and the bulk of stocks had to be carried by importers and factors.

With respect to manufactured goods, the State, with its growing population, buys more and more largely from the East every year. Importers resident at San Francisco carry on the numerous branches of trade coming under this head. They order their supplies understandingly, knowing the wants of the State, and their business, one year with another, is fairly profitable.

The following statement of the tonnage arriving at San Francisco from Atlantic ports, from 1856 to 1861, will show the extent of the imports from that quarter for a series of years. The statement exhibits—1. The number of vessels. 2. The aggregate registered tonnage. 3. Estimated tons of cargo at sixty per cent. over register. 4. Total amount of freight moneys paid in each year:

	Where from.	*No. of Vessels.*	*Registered Tonnage.*	*Tons of Cargo.*	*Amount of Freight Paid.*
1856.	New-York,	79	103,532	165,652	$ 2,167,045
	Boston,	37	42,200	64,320	924,957
	Other ports,	7	5,602	8,963	144,867
	Total for 1856,	123	149,334	238,935	$ 3,236,869
1857.	New-York,	61	74,402	119,043	$ 1,309,244
	Boston,	28	33,802	54,083	469,798
	Philadelphia,	1	1,219	1,950	22,390
	Total for 1857,	90	109,423	175,076	$ 1,801,432

	Where from.	*No. of Vessels.*	*Registered Tonnage.*	*Tons of Cargo.*	*Amount of Freight Paid.*
1858.	New-York,.....	66 ..	77,882 ..	124,611 ..	$ 1,503,955
	Boston,.....	34 ..	32,166 ..	51,870 ..	607,329
	Other ports,.....	5 ..	4,345 ..	6,952 ..	68,919
	Total for 1858,.....	105 ..	114,333 ..	182,933 ..	$ 2,180,203
1859.	New-York,.....	90 ..	107,276 ..	171,641 ..	$ 2,107,924
	Boston,.....	43 ..	44,799 ..	71,678 ..	892,704
	Other ports,.....	8 ..	5,001 ..	8,002 ..	92,582
	Total for 1859,.....	141 ..	157,076 ..	251,321 ..	$ 3,093,210
1860.	New-York,.....	76 ..	93,240 ..	149,184 ..	$ 1,777,802
	Boston,.....	30 ..	30,661 ..	49,057 ..	624,396
	Other ports,.....	9 ..	6,341 ..	10,145 ..	82,988
	Total for 1860,.....	115 ..	130,242 ..	208,386 ..	$ 2,485,186

Recapitulation.

Years.	*No. of Vessels.*	*Registered Tonnage.*	*Tons of Cargo.*	*Freights.*
Total for 1856,.....	123 ..	149,334 ..	238,935 ..	$ 3,236,869
" 1857,.....	90 ..	109,423 ..	175,076 ..	1,801,432
" 1858,.....	105 ..	114,333 ..	182,933 ..	2,180,203
" 1859,.....	141 ..	157,076 ..	251,321 ..	3,093,210
" 1860,.....	115 ..	130,242 ..	208,386 ..	2,485,186
Grand total for five years,.....	574 ..	660,408 ..	1,056,651 ..	$ 12,796,900

Average freight per ton for	1856,.....	$ 13 55
" "	1857,.....	10 29
" "	1858,.....	11 91
" "	1859,.....	12 31
" "	1860,.....	11 95

The average tonnage of the vessels employed in the trade between the Atlantic ports and California has, for the last six years, ranged as follows:

	Tons Reg.		*Tons Reg.*
1855,.....	1,133	1858,.....	1,089
1856,.....	1,214	1859,.....	1,114
1857,.....	1,215	1860,.....	1,132

Disasters to the Fleet in 1860.

The year 1860 was an unusually prosperous one to the fleet; twelve vessels were obliged to touch at way ports, but they were mostly small craft. Only one vessel, the bark Baltic, was lost; she was from Alexandria, with a cargo of coal, and was abandoned at sea December 17th. During the preceding year six ships, one coal laden, and the rest with valuable assorted cargoes, were totally lost. The steamship Granada, of New-York, was lost on the 13th October, in the harbor of San Francisco, near Fort Point, through the culpable negligence of the pilot.

The California Passage.

The year 1860 was signalized by the quickest passage ever made between New-York and San Francisco. The medium clipper Andrew Jackson, 1,679 tons, sailed from here in the last of December, and arrived out in eighty-nine days. The quickest time previously made was by the celebrated extreme clipper Flying Cloud, in eighty-nine days and six hours. The average length of passage in 1860 from New-York and Boston to San Francisco was, from the former port, somewhat shorter than during the two preceding years. From Boston, the average has scarcely varied for six years. The following is a statement of the average and the shortest passages in six years:

	From New-York.					From Boston.		
Years.	Average passage. Days.		Shortest passage. Days.		Years.	Average passage. Days.		Shortest passage. Days.
1855,.....	124½	..	—	....	1855,.....	137½	..	—
1856,.....	128	..	94	....	1856,.....	131	..	106
1857,.....	131	..	91	....	1857,.....	126	..	104
1858,.....	134	..	101	....	1858,.....	136	..	107
1859,.....	139½	..	102	....	1859,.....	140½	..	112
1860,.....	133½	..	89	....	1860,.....	142	..	97

Steam Communication *via* Panama.

The California mails, passengers and treasure, *via* Panama, have been carried, since the 5th March, by the steamers of C. Vanderbilt and associates on this side, and those of the Pacific Mail Company on the Pacific; these two companies, which had been running opposition previously, consolidating their interests at that date, a change was made immediately thereafter in the number of steamers run; instead of two semi-monthly, three were despatched, the dates of sailing being the 1st, 11th and 21st of each month. The rates of fare were also judiciously reduced, and the beneficial effects to the State are seen in a larger increase of population by seaward arrivals than in any preceding year since 1855. The bold experiment was made early in the year of shipping butter from this market to San Francisco by this route. It proved entirely successful, the butter arriving out in short of forty days, in every way superior condition to that sent *via* Cape Horn. The consequence is, that the latter route for transport of this article has been entirely abandoned. Large amounts of valuable light goods are sent by the Isthmus; the total value of the shipments per steamers in 1860, according to the Custom-House records, was but little short of eight millions of dollars.

The following figures exhibit the passenger movement of the port of San Francisco since 1856:

Arrivals.	1857.		1858.		1859.		1860.
From Panama,.....	17,637	..	....	..	26,907	..	20,092
" other countries,.....	6,963	..	40,739	..	11,276	..	10,619
Total arrivals,.....	24,600	..	40,739	..	38,183	..	30,711
Departures.							
For Panama,.....	12,367	..	27,994	..	19,030	..	10,084
" other countries,.....	4,584	..	....	..	5,751	..	4,492
Total departures,.....	16,951	..	27,994	..	24,781	..	14,576

It will be understood that nearly all the passengers, *via* Panama, were emigrating from or returning to the Atlantic States. The total gain to California, by seaward arrivals, during the five years ending with 1860, amounted to 55,293 souls.

FREIGHTS TO CALIFORNIA FROM NEW-YORK.

Date.	Dry Goods, per foot.	Groceries, Liquors, &c.	Date.	Dry Goods, per foot.	Groceries, Liquors, &c.
1857.			1859.		
January,.....	25 @ 30	25 @ 30	January,.....	27½ @ 35	27½ @ 32½
February,.....	25 @ ..	22½ @ 25	February,.....	27½ @ 35	27½ @ 32½
March,.....	25 @ ..	22½ @ 25	March,.....	27½ @ 35	27½ @ 32½
April,.....	25 @ ..	22½ @ 25	April,.....	30 @ 35	30 @ 32½
May,.....	25 @ 27½	25 @ 27½	May,.....	27½ @ 32½	27½ @ 30
June,.....	22½ @ 25	22½ @ 25	June,.....	25 @ 32½	25 @ 30
July,.....	23½ @ 25	22½ @ 25	July,.....	22½ @ 32½	22½ @ 30
August,.....	25 @ ..	22½ @ 25	August,.....	25 @ 30	25 @ 27½
September,.....	25 @ ..	22½ @ 25	September,.....	25 @ 30	25 @ 27½
October,.....	22½ @ 25	22½ @ 25	October,.....	25 @ 32½	25 @ 30
November,.....	25 @ ..	22½ @ 25	November,.....	25 @ 35	25 @ 32½
December,.....	27½ @ 30	27½ @ 30	December,.....	27½ @ 32½	27½ @ 30
1858.			1860.		
January,.....	30 @ 35	30 @ 35	January,.....	27½ @ 32½	27½ @ 30
February,.....	32½ @ 35	32½ @ 35	February,.....	30 @ 32½	27½ @ 30
March,.....	27½ @ 30	27½ @ 30	March,.....	27½ @ 32½	25 @ 30
April,.....	30 @ ..	30 @ ..	April,.....	30 @ 35	27½ @ 32½
May,.....	30 @ ..	30 @ ..	May,.....	25 @ 32½	25 @ 30
June,.....	30 @ 32½	30 @ 32½	June,.....	25 @ 32½	25 @ 30
July,.....	30 @ ..	30 @ ..	July,.....	27½ @ 30	27½ @ ..
August,.....	32½ @ 35	32½ @ 35	August,.....	27½ @ 32½	25 @ 30
September,.....	30 @ ..	30 @ ..	September,.....	30 @ 35	27½ @ 32½
October,.....	30 @ ..	30 @ ..	October,.....	30 @ 35	27½ @ 32½
November,.....	27½ @ 35	27½ @ 35	November,.....	32½ @ 37½	30 @ 32½
December,.....	30 @ 35	30 @ 35	December,.....	30 @ 35	30 @ 32½

THE EXPORTS OF CALIFORNIA.

Notwithstanding the Washoe silver excitement leading away many miners from their gold claims, in the first part of 1860, the yield of gold, the great staple product of California, seems to have suffered no diminution. It is true that the exports of treasure from San Francisco in 1860, as compared with those of 1859, show a decrease of $5,315,000, but this is no evidence, as might hastily be supposed, of a diminished product. The export of gold is simply the standard of the obligations of the State abroad, and not of the productiveness of the mines. According to the records at San Francisco of the receipts from the interior (exclusive of what is brought by private hands) and the exports abroad, it

would appear that the product of the mines in 1860 exceeded the average of the two preceding years. The following figures will show this:

	1858.	1859.	1860.
Receipts from interior,.....	$40,023,420	.. $46,873,159	.. $45,211,693
Imports from abroad,.....	2,368,753	.. 2,516,152	.. 1,809,061
Total,.....	$42,392,173	.. $49,389,311	.. $47,020,754
Exports,.....	47,548,025	.. 47,640,462	.. 42,325,916
Loss for the year,.....	$5,155,852	.. ....	.. ....
Gain for the year,.....	....	.. $1,748,849	.. $4,694,838

As remarked elsewhere in this article, the State has, during the past year, produced all the cured meats needed for its own consumption; owing also to increased home production, the imports of Eastern lard and butter (two great staples) have fallen off fifty per cent. Add to this the fact that the exports other than treasure in 1860 exceeded those of 1859 by $3,000,000, and there is ample explanation why upwards of five millions of gold were retained in the State in 1860 more than in the preceding year.

Considerable progress was made in 1860 in developing the silver mines in Western Utah, commonly known as the "Washoe Mines." At the close of the year twenty quartz mills for crushing the ore, and about as many saw mills were completed or in course of erection. Their cost, owing to the fact that the machinery had to be transported across the Sierra Nevada Mountains, was about double that of similar works in California. The price charged by the owners of these quartz mills for crushing and amalgamating ores ranges from $25 to $50 per ton. In California the price for the same work, in all the principal districts, is $4 to $5 per ton, at which rates it is a profitable business. An idea of the value of the leads of Western Utah, as compared with the generality of quartz leads in California, may be drawn from the fact that they can pay the enormous rate there charged for reducing them, while the average yield of the quartz leads of Grass Valley, the oldest and one of the richest districts in California, is only $20 per ton, and from this all the expenses of getting out the rock and reducing it have to be deducted. Up to the close of the year but little had been done at Washoe in the way of reducing ores on the spot. But a number of the mining companies had been busily engaged in getting out ore, and had accumulated from a few hundred to two thousand tons each ready for crushing. Of the ores taken out those found to yield, by assay, over $300 per ton, have been sent to San Francisco, (at a cost of $120 per ton and upwards for freight,) and mostly shipped thence to Europe. The exports of silver ore, during the year 1860, according to the San Francisco Custom-House records, were of the value of $416,613. This is, however, no guide as to what the ores yielded. In addition to the ores exported, several hundred tons have been smelted at two establishments in San Francisco, yielding about $150,000. When it is considered that the Washoe mining district was a howling wilderness at the commencement of 1860, and that every necessary of life, even the material for habitations, had to be transported across the Sierra Nevada on the backs of mules, it must be conceded that vast progress has been made in opening the mines, and without doubt their product this year will ascend to millions.

Although the injunction of the United States government restraining the owners of the New-Almaden quicksilver mine from working it was not removed until the commencement of 1861, still the quantity of that metal exported in 1860 again rose to some importance. Three other mines were industriously worked under the impulse of an active demand both for home and foreign consumption. The following figures show the yield of these three mines during the year:

	New-Idria.	*Enriquita.*	*Gaudaloupe.*
Yield in 1860,.....	4,618 flasks. ..	6,816 flasks. ..	2,675 flasks.

The ruling prices during the year was 60 cents for home consumption and 50 cents for export.

The exports of agricultural produce from the State figure largely over those of any former year. Breadstuffs increased 100 per cent.; wool, 36 per cent., and hides 30 per cent.

The following are tabular statements of the exports of leading California products for several years past:

Exports of Treasure.

Statement of the Amounts and Destination of Treasure Exported from San Francisco, during the year 1860.

To New-York.		Exported to—	
In January,.....	$ 3,360,296 25	New-York,.....	$ 35,661,500 37
" February,.....	3,126,183 77	New-Orleans,.....	57,795 93
" March,.....	2,177,395 67	England,.....	2,672,936 20
" April, ...	2,692,728 88	China,.....	3,374,680 27
" May,.....	2,905,028 40	Japan,.....	94,200 00
" June,.....	3,709,755 01	Manilla,.....	75,659 94
" July,.....	1,969,435 05	Panama,.....	300,619 00
" August,.....	2,502,070 47	Sandwich Islands,.....	40,679 57
" September,.....	3,157,303 59	Mexico,.....	19,400 00
" October,.....	2,958,784 19	Costa Rica,.....	3,145 00
" November,.....	2,982,704 78	Vancouver Island,.....	25,100 00
" December,.....	4,119,814 31		
Total,.....	$ 35,661,500 37	Total,.....	$ 42,325,916 28

Table exhibiting the Shipments of Treasure from San Francisco to the 31st December, 1860, *to all quarters, and also to New-York; the Receipts of Gold at the United States Mint and Branches, and the estimated yield of the Mines of California, since* 1848.

Year.	*Shipments to all quarters, as manifested.*	*Shipments to New-York.*	*Receipts at Mint and Branches.*	*Estimated yield of California*
1848,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	$ 60,000
1849,.....	$ 4,921,250 ..	.... ..	$ 5,232,249 ..	8,000,000
1850,.....	27,676,346 ..	.... ..	28,206,226 ..	33,000,000
1851,.....	45,582,695 ..	.... ..	57,138,980 ..	55,000,000
1852,.....	46,586,134 ..	.... ..	51,470,675 ..	57,000,000
1853,.....	57,331,024 ..	47,916,448 ..	62,838,395 ..	69,000,000
1854,.....	51,328,653 ..	46,289,649 ..	46,719,083 ..	64,000,000
1855,.....	43,080,211 ..	38,730,564 ..	47,419,945 ..	65,000,000
1856,.....	48,887,543 ..	39,765,294 ..	56,379,901 ..	70,000,000
1857,.....	48,592,743 ..	35,287,778 ..	55,217,843 ..	70,000,000
1858,.....	47,548,025 ..	35,578,236 ..	51,494,311 ..	70,000,000
1859,.....	47,640,463 ..	39,831,937 ..	52,000,000 ..	70,000,000
1860,.....	42,325,916 ..	35,661,500 ..	27,037,919 ..	70,000,000

EXPORTS OF QUICKSILVER.

Years.	*To New-York. Flasks.*	*To other Countries. Flasks.*	*Years.*	*To New-York. Flasks.*	*To other Countries. Flasks.*
1853,.....	.... ..	18,800	1858,.....	3,559 ..	20,573
1854,.....	.... ..	20,963	1859,.....	250 ..	3,149
1855,.....	.... ..	27,165	1860,.....	400 ..	8,948
1856,.....	1,500 ..	22,240			
1857,.....	8,374 ..	18,888	Total,.....	14,083 ..	140,726

From the above it appears that the total amount of quicksilver exported from the State during the past eight years was 154,809 flasks; there was consumed within the State, during the same period, 16,000 flasks, making a total production (almost entirely from the New-Almaden mine) of 170,809 flasks of 75 lbs. each. The price ranged from 1853 to 1860 from 75c. to 50c. per lb.

Table of Exports of leading articles of California Produce to New-York for the last five years.

ARTICLES.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
Barley,.....84 lb. sacks,	....	97,675	51,103	97,947	16,510
Hides,.....number,	132,032	170,447	142,899	151,364	200,116
Quicksilver,.....flasks,	2,414	8,374	3,559	250	400
Skins,.....bales,	1,506	798	876	975	939
" .....number,	9,318	26,363	3,812	....	2,874
Salmon,.....bbls.,	256	212	906	250	1,112
Tallow,.....packages,	3	826	194	888	518
Wool,.....lbs.,	600,000	1,100,000	1,428,351	2,378,250	2,981,000
Wheat,.....100 lb. sacks,	....	....	....	12,054	203,528

Exhibit of the Exports of a few leading articles of California Produce to all countries in 1860.

Barley,.....84 lb. sacks,	136,916	Oats,.....55 lb. bags,	76,590
Beans,.....50 " "	1,397	Potatoes,.....110 " "	34,161
Flour,.....bbls.,	121,688	Skins,.....packages,	580
Hides,.....number,	200,116	Tallow,..... "	2,181
Hay,.....bales,	9,637	Wheat,.....100 lb. sacks,	1,135,098
Lumber,.....M. feet,	3,976	Wool,.....pounds,	3,060,000

The value of the exports of California, other than treasure, during the last five years, has been as follows:

1856,.....	$ 4,270,260	1859,.....	$ 5,533,411
1857,.....	4,369,758	1860,.....	8,532,489
1858,.....	4,770,163		

DRY GOODS TRADE OF NEW-YORK,

FOR THE YEAR 1860.

From the U. S. Economist and Dry Goods Reporter.

ON pp. 154—156 our readers will find a detailed statement of the imports of dry goods at the port of New-York for the closing year, as compared with the years 1857, 1858 and 1859. The following table shows the comparative receipts for the last twelve years:

IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS INTO THE UNITED STATES.

	Woollens.	*Cottons.*	*Silks.*	*Flax.*	*Miscellaneous.*	*Total.*
1849,.....	$ 11,983,279	$ 6,519,972	$ 15,295,758	$ 4,756,561	$ 3,959,210	$ 45,514,775
1850,.....	16,565,016	11,088,595	20,281,034	7,562,941	2,292,437	58,329,823
1851,.....	15,252,028	11,027,938	23,436,456	6,749,818	4,110,163	60,626,400
1852,.....	16,172,991	11,389,858	23,944,508	7,103,887	4,644,017	62,804,261
1853,.....	28,204,146	16,803,358	34,128,519	8,790,135	5,766,964	93,499,086
1854.....	21,884,346	15,610,143	27,599,393	7,258,053	5,805,939	78,157,873
1855,.....	19,157,015	11,274,221	23,476,460	6,924,635	5,968,365	66,802,697
1856,.....	26,185,825	10,901,135	28,780,519	8,772,822	7,203,592	88,927,453
1857,.....	24,933,403	17,480,962	27,691,987	6,938,787	6,676,856	82,676,523
1858,.....	21,124,308	13,567,943	20,881,786	7,009,636	4,914,523	69,093,765
1859,.....	37,329,041	27,781,264	33,652,647	11,120,484	6,266,052	112,970,944
1860,.....	34,582,922	17,721,725	34,958,710	7,914,152	6,574,497	101,880,406

It will be observed, from the above statement, that the whole importation of dry goods at this port for the past year amounts to $101,880,406. The amount, though considerable, is yet less than that of 1859 by $11,090,538, a decrease of about ten per cent. The only other year approaching this sum is 1853, when the receipts reached the then extraordinary figure of $93,500,000. It does not appear that the importation has been in excess of the wants of the country. Judging from the fact that during both the spring and fall seasons importers have been enabled to clear out their stocks quite satisfactorily, and that the general result of the year's business has been favorable, we should conclude that a hundred million dollars worth of dry goods may be safely imported yearly, when the general trade of the country is in a wholesome condition. On comparing the amounts of the several kinds of manufactures with the corresponding items of previous years, some important fluctuations will be observed.

Manufactures of wool have not varied very materially from 1859, there having been a decrease under that head of $2,796,119, which is about a due proportion of the total decrease on all kinds of goods. In cotton goods, however, there has been a very significant decrease. In 1859 the receipts were $27,781,264; this year they have been $17,721,725; showing a falling off of $10,059,539, or thirty-five per cent. This is a very important fluctuation, and would seem to be attributable less to the competition of domestic goods than the reaction of an excessive supply during last year. Large as is the decrease compared with 1859, yet the importation has been larger than during any other former year. In 1857 nearly an equal amount was imported; in 1856 the receipts were less

by $6,800,000; and in 1855 by $6,400,000; so that the importation for this year even exceeds an average.

Silk manufactures show an increase on last year, although that was one of the largest years in the annals of the trade. The four years of largest importations of silk goods since 1849 have been as follows:

1853,	$34,128,519
1856,	28,730,519
1859,	33,682,647
1860,	34,988,710

The receipts of last year, therefore, exceeded those of all former periods. Few have been prepared to expect such a fact; for the heavy losses made on silk goods, of almost every class, in 1859, had produced an impression that a considerable reaction would appear this year. Thirty-five million dollars worth of silk goods is certainly an enormous value for one year's consumption; yet it appears to be no more than the people are prepared to buy, for the close of the season finds importers with a lighter balance than they have held for several seasons. The fact that thirty-five per cent. of the entire value of dry goods imported consists of silk fabrics affords some idea of the freedom with which our population spend their money on costly articles of dress; perhaps no other country in the world can show such a proportion of silk goods in its consumption of textile fabrics.

The importation of flax goods has been about equal to the average of late years, though much below that of 1859. Last year the receipts were $11,120,484; this year they have been $7,914,152—showing a decrease of $3,206,332, or about twenty-seven per cent. When it is considered that last year's imports were nearly twenty-five per cent. in excess of those of any former year, it is apparent enough that such a balance of goods must have been brought over into the present year as to materially limit the requirements of the past twelve months.

Review of the Foreign Dry Goods Trade of New-York.

The year 1860 has been one of varied fortunes with the dry goods importer. The spring business was generally unsatisfactory in its results, whilst that of the fall has been equally favorable; although there appears to have been no sufficient cause why the former should not have been as satisfactory as the latter season. The experience of the spring trade shows how easily our importers may lose a few million dollars by bad management; and that of the fall how great control over the value of their property they actually possess. The spring importation happened to be received earlier than usual, which naturally raised an expectation early in the season that the market would be heavily stocked. On the 1st of January a larger amount of stock was in bond than is usually held at that period; during that month the receipts continued to increase on the previous year's until, at the beginning of February, the imports showed an excess over January of 1859 amounting to $1,200,000; during February, also, the increase was maintained, so that the customs returns for the two months exhibited an aggregate gain on the same period of 1859 amounting to $3,360,000, or about fifteen per cent. This was the bugbear of the market. Importers took fright at the figures, and

losing all hope of their being reduced during succeeding weeks, they also ost confidence in their property, and threw themselves on the tender mercies of buyers, which of course proved to be "cruel." Buying commenced late, owing to the vacillation of holders respecting prices, and, being late, was consequently of a character unsatisfactory to the sellers. After the beginning of March, however, the receipts began to decline, and continued to do so steadily until at the beginning of May the imports for the four months showed a slight decrease on the same period of 1859. This, of course, was too late to effect any material recovery in the tone of trade. During the mean time goods had been selling very heavily, and in many instances at ruinous prices. Jobbers, perceiving the fears of importers, were determined in bringing them to the auction room, which they effected without much difficulty, so that the public sales were unusually early, and large almost beyond precedent.

Dress goods, shawls, and silks especially, were crowded rapidly upon the market, and buyers finding they were to have prices according to their own ordering, took advantage of the occasion, and bought the major portion of their supplies at a heavy discount from the cost of importation. Probably not less than $25,000,000 of various kinds of goods was sold at auction, at an average loss of from 15 @ 20 per cent., making a total loss to the importers of not less than four million dollars. It was generally acknowledged by the trade that this ruinous procedure was very largely attributable to the unwise haste of sellers in resorting to public sale. Had a little more firmness been shown by holders, they could with perfect ease have made from 15 @ 20 per cent. more on their sales. There was nothing whatever in the state of the general trade of the country to shake the confidence of the market. The Southern jobbers commenced the season with heavy purchases, and good expectations were cherished respecting the West; whilst every other section of the country was in a fine condition for buying. In the prospect of the demand there was everything to encourage holders; but because they had chanced to stock themselves a month earlier than usual, they threw overboard all their chances, and squandered their capital where they might have increased it. It is a most unfortunate circumstance that the importer should have so little control over the value of his property. It may be that, from the peculiarities of the market, the importers could not have acted otherwise than as they did in the case in question; it must be admitted, however, that if they are surrounded by such sensitive influences as render it dangerous to make a liberal importation, the only wise policy for each merchant is to carefully keep within the strictest moderation in making his importation.

The lessons suggested by the experience of the spring trade are—that the market is peculiarly subject to the control of sensations; that a great sensation may be created out of very trivial causes; that holders of goods are themselves the first to yield to an unfounded sensation, instead of being the last; that sensations tend to the auction room; and that auctions, under such circumstances, are disastrous to the importer.

These costly lessons of the spring business appear not to have been lost upon the importing interest, for the course of the fall trade has presented a perfect contrast in these points to that of the spring. The early importation was moderate, so that the season opened with stocks as light as in spring they were heavy. On the 1st of August the imports of fall

goods were $6,000,000 less than for the same period of 1859, and this decrease upon the last year was steadily maintained up to the close of the season. The result was that business opened with a firm tone and an active movement. Jobbers came early into the market, and importers sold a large portion of their stock during the early weeks at excellent profits. They were as late in their resort to public sale as in the spring they had been premature, and no general break down in prices was experienced throughout the season. The auctions commenced about a month later than usual, and the offerings being unfrequent and in many cases light, a scale of prices was sustained throughout quite equal to those of private sales. About the middle of the season the receipts of French worsted goods increased considerably, owing to the abolition of the export bounty on cotton and woollen fabrics by the French government; and this, causing a surplus of such stock to be offered at auction, produced a partial depreciation of its value. With that exception, however, the value of property at public sale was as good at the close of the season as at its commencement. These facts show the inspiriting tendency of a moderate importation.

The general failure of the Southern demand appeared to have little effect on the feeling of the market, although the volume of trade with that section did not amount to more than one-half of its usual extent—still further showing the sustaining tendency of a safe importation. It is also worthy of note, as showing the importance of a moderate aggregate of imports, that a certain class of goods have made handsome profits through the season, although the amount has been beyond all precedent. The receipts of silks for the fall of 1859 were unusually heavy, causing importers to lose all confidence in such goods and sacrifice upon them very heavily. The importation of silk manufactures for the present fall have been, however, over two million dollars, or eleven per cent. larger than last year; and yet, strange to say, silks have been the most desirable property of the season, and have sold down to a very low balance, excepting certain *passé* styles brought over from 1859. This difference between the results of the two seasons is not to be accounted for by the existence of any better demand this fall than last, especially considering that the South, which takes so many silks, has bought very sparingly this season; it is undoubtedly the result of the moderation of the aggregate importation having given confidence to holders generally.

It will be seen from the above statement that the total importation for the twelve months is $101,880,406, against $112,970,944 for 1859.

THE TOTAL ENTRIES AT THE PORT FOR	1859.		1860.
The first six months were.....	$57,257,530	....	$50,595,474
The second six months were	55,713,414	....	51,284,932
	$112,970,944		$101,880,406

The general result of the year's business has not been such as to add materially to the capital of importers. The fall trade has been almost without exception satisfactory; but it is doubtful whether its profits have been sufficient to cover the losses made during the spring.

The panic consequent on the political crisis came too late to affect seriously the general result of the fall trade. The balance of stock on hand at the beginning of November was quite light, which enabled im-

porters to hold their property at about the same prices as were obtained earlier in the season.

The woollen trade was generally unsatisfactory during the spring months. The clothing houses bought sparingly throughout the season, providing only for immediate wants; whilst the jobbers, having imported on their own account more freely than usual, wanted but little from the regular importers. The importation of fancy cassimeres was especially abundant, large amounts having been sold from samples previous to arrivals. Low and medium grades sold at very low rates, and in order to be pushed off had to be sold on terms much beyond the usual date. Fine French styles, however, were in fair demand throughout the season, and generally brought good prices. The general result of the season's trade in cassimeres showed that our own manufacturers are gaining very rapidly upon foreign goods in the estimation of buyers, and the probability is that their spring experience has taught importers that they must look to the further exclusion of foreign styles from the market. Some exception to these remarks should be made in the case of silk mixtures, in which the German fabricants undoubtedly excel our own, both as respects the make, color and price of the goods. The importation of German cloths and doeskins was very considerable, which caused holders to press their stock on buyers to the ruin of prices; and the consequence was, that although the demand throughout the season was steady, yet prices were in many cases below cost.

The experience of the fall business has been in contrast with that of the spring. Importers began the season with moderate stocks, and the jobbers, having been induced by the adverse result of their spring importations to buy less direct than then, were early in the market, giving a good tone to the beginning transactions. Prices opened at fair rates, and have been sustained throughout the season, having in some cases advanced. The trade in British woollens, though somewhat better than for the same period of last year, has not been generally satisfactory. The lower grades of coatings, which have hitherto been chiefly supplied from the West Riding of Yorkshire, are now being largely produced by our own manufacturers, whose goods are preferred by many clothiers in consequence of their reputed superior strength and honesty. As the season advanced, and finer grades came more into demand, there was an improved request for beavers, pilots, &c., of British make, but even then importers were not able to make much profit on their transactions. The importation of sealskins and mohairs was considerable, and the demand for them good through the season; but prices were generally below those of the previous fall, though sufficient to leave a fair profit. German tricots, beavers and heavy cloths have sold well since the middle of the season, the demand from the cloaking trade having been well sustained. The year closes with a light stock of foreign woollens generally. We apprehend that importers have been taught a lesson of caution to be exercised in their future importations of goods competing with American styles. The following are the comparative importations of woollen manufactures for the years 1858, 1859 and 1860:

1858.		1859.		1860.
$18,73,6075	....	$37,329,041	....	$34,532,922

FOREIGN DRY GOODS TRADE OF NEW-YORK.

From the U. S. Economist and Dry Goods Reporter.

VALUE OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION AT THE PORT OF NEW-YORK DURING THE YEARS 1857, 1858, 1859 AND 1860.

MONTHS.	MANUFACTURES OF WOOL.				MANUFACTURES OF COTTON.				MANUFACTURES OF SILK.			
	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
January,	$2,177,882	$ 836,158	$2,290,857	$2,442,249	$2,449,134	$ 883,621	$3,061,040	$2,406,778	$3,964,953	$ 533,080	$3,071,082	$4,554,648
February,	2,362,658	1,043,010	2,559,022	3,719,387	3,457,678	1,128,149	2,570,029	2,680,686	3,402,231	1,631,268	3,358,547	5,004,487
March,	1,305,929	1,070,923	3,200,892	2,718,762	1,318,388	881,079	2,546,372	1,628,745	2,124,550	2,028,145	2,729,037	2,597,983
April,	1,292,225	584,216	2,391,302	1,581,097	1,439,689	512,671	1,668,878	687,423	1,520,543	722,704	2,345,015	1,336,628
May,	357,188	777,719	2,514,299	1,901,549	400,579	507,070	1,268,698	661,329	369,272	602,449	1,440,232	1,422,900
June,	166,982	1,163,790	3,251,242	1,640,773	192,328	407,672	1,773,109	670,849	120,118	1,027,587	2,573,986	1,816,948
July,	6,153,630	3,110,483	4,911,803	4,700,030	2,456,703	1,198,971	2,961,195	1,504,437	5,398,241	2,516,772	5,095,323	4,426,960
August,	3,643,502	4,312,916	5,250,619	5,295,056	1,297,861	1,789,745	2,154,909	1,607,252	3,619,076	3,526,725	4,864,855	5,329,700
September,	1,696,756	1,910,232	2,005,381	2,481,129	1,010,655	881,602	832,065	746,431	1,535,628	2,077,643	1,998,329	2,033,271
October,	278,922	1,008,686	1,421,850	1,452,145	130,442	529,125	774,020	482,349	171,636	1,364,921	1,155,513	1,789,298
November,	144,604	694,251	1,530,208	1,465,422	65,988	397,054	939,067	448,481	85,441	675,034	1,406,922	1,441,427
December,	147,305	1,449,920	2,068,695	702,980	250,106	1,451,797	1,851,515	843,149	169,962	1,393,672	2,428,619	771,404
Total,	19,728,183	16,463,299	33,691,020	30,050,579	14,469,046	10,068,646	22,431,488	18,867,416	22,481,651	17,099,931	32,467,460	32,525,604

MONTHS.	MANUFACTURES OF FLAX.				MISCELLANEOUS.				TOTAL.			
	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
January,	$ 904,019	$ 183,388	$1,085,455	$ 735,256	$ 960,761	$ 160,681	$ 569,296	$ 480,340	10,456,749	$1,596,923	$10,027,730	10,619,271
February,	1,146,547	358,950	956,645	1,004,431	947,115	842,942	739,409	695,889	11,316,224	4,514,819	10,183,652	18,104,780
March,	497,409	861,387	1,119,172	844,080	707,600	852,779	583,420	529,953	5,953,876	4,694,313	10,178,883	8,319,423
April,	569,168	289,784	814,360	432,882	543,198	191,644	464,360	225,875	5,364,813	2,251,019	7,684,363	4,213,855
May,	102,221	212,915	709,901	414,364	124,596	140,876	251,864	292,099	1,354,456	2,301,029	6,184,994	4,692,241
June,	40,509	183,092	685,016	274,791	68,840	166,256	133,544	356,792	588,777	2,948,387	8,416,888	4,760,158
July,	947,988	627,050	1,156,373	421,291	1,069,192	466,023	510,912	740,867	16,025,754	7,919,299	14,685,606	11,793,585
August,	566,026	689,921	997,540	757,000	694,871	614,826	932,431	980,597	9,820,836	11,084,133	14,000,854	13,969,612
September,	420,464	404,768	614,930	544,315	405,016	801,912	513,268	512,969	5,068,519	5,576,247	5,990,978	6,268,115
October,	87,374	415,830	625,838	415,214	103,649	226,528	241,175	474,404	772,023	3,545,090	4,218,996	4,613,410
November,	71,150	279,432	674,649	405,283	70,364	197,616	367,220	435,265	437,547	2,243,387	5,218,066	4,195,828
December,	69,064	746,540	783,248	166,538	94,652	391,926	335,696	187,265	731,089	5,373,855	7,462,688	2,171,336
Total,	5,421,984	4,853,057	10,173,179	6,415,845	5,789,869	3,564,009	5,647,595	5,912,265	87,890,668	54,047,951	104,202,188	88,721,609

VALUE OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE DURING THE SAME PERIOD.

Months.	Manufactures of Wool.				Manufactures of Cotton.				Manufactures of Silk.			
	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
January,	$ 189,805	$ 414,023	$ 196,128	$ 252,225	$ 581,305	$ 594,622	$ 404,810	$ 575,227	$ 824,686	$ 616,869	$ 126,117	$ 331,876
February,	214,038	497,543	174,617	284,256	598,144	865,250	357,320	465,690	269,274	722,697	156,965	219,243
March,	217,535	552,770	158,687	259,623	378,284	779,075	192,028	336,788	270,066	550,331	66,119	106,413
April,	168,384	288,775	130,156	223,577	124,526	296,142	40,881	162,159	151,287	188,442	30,722	55,884
May,	173,168	227,583	83,070	143,628	74,142	174,548	27,175	78,664	142,422	147,298	10,635	98,051
June,	86,016	218,504	87,544	115,300	48,479	105,722	41,497	43,179	42,963	164,492	49,581	91,761
July,	2,298,889	456,073	441,207	488,655	559,887	148,404	57,071	175,282	1,688,006	215,881	136,717	133,646
August,	1,001,855	911,951	989,517	677,418	263,788	204,568	188,089	250,799	628,167	305,358	142,475	252,843
September,	441,131	484,900	317,469	451,803	130,728	128,765	96,581	161,118	198,865	178,458	76,672	134,334
October,	69,809	300,990	147,508	198,458	18,787	64,094	57,924	51,808	81,660	54,498	28,843	38,677
November,	117,098	159,762	123,385	100,809	51,769	63,557	43,090	40,219	111,508	51,159	47,650	42,338
December,	238,542	148,190	90,736	49,507	181,727	94,550	62,707	44,049	206,482	86,882	60,967	17,882
Total,	5,210,220	4,661,004	2,940,019	3,245,259	3,011,516	3,499,297	1,568,623	2,374,427	4,210,336	3,281,805	933,463	1,522,398
Add entered for consumption,	19,728,183	16,463,299	33,691,020	30,050,579	14,469,046	10,068,646	22,431,488	13,867,416	22,481,651	17,099,931	32,467,460	32,525,604
Total thrown upon the market,	24,938,403	21,124,303	36,631,039	33,295,838	17,480,562	13,567,943	24,020,111	16,241,843	26,691,987	20,381,736	33,400,923	34,048,002

Months.	Manufactures of Flax.				Miscellaneous.				Total.			
	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
January,	$ 161,298	$ 325,455	$ 175,573	$ 146,615	$ 95,010	$ 161,681	$ 56,592	$ 76,584	$1,352,099	$2,112,150	$ 958,715	$ 1,381,827
February,	185,897	393,729	177,328	123,382	69,826	227,937	70,580	85,225	1,387,179	2,707,156	936,810	1,177,746
March,	170,564	301,285	122,261	91,029	103,805	228,655	62,586	72,808	1,140,254	2,412,116	601,681	866,656
April,	139,531	165,205	41,081	57,806	57,205	141,547	14,389	80,830	640,931	1,080,111	257,179	580,206
May,	51,448	151,298	46,516	50,782	16,311	88,867	11,025	42,461	457,491	733,936	178,421	413,586
June,	87,267	118,842	56,496	27,828	12,294	60,119	15,954	19,393	227,019	665,899	251,072	297,961
July,	858,981	114,478	87,679	40,700	288,564	106,958	40,124	14,924	5,289,277	1,041,784	712,798	853,157
August,	191,500	202,568	118,755	114,279	49,866	82,816	42,720	57,012	2,184,626	1,707,256	1,476,506	1,852,351
September,	112,155	121,410	109,614	76,925	81,462	111,745	40,596	51,458	959,341	1,025,276	640,992	845,633
October,	3,759	72,584	38,240	43,081	24,583	75,780	29,516	19,599	142,598	567,836	302,081	351,123
November,	24,942	98,795	74,563	29,094	30,788	79,603	53,693	23,322	336,105	452,976	342,381	235,782
December,	79,466	99,985	39,959	38,027	112,773	120,361	50,828	10,822	818,940	589,918	305,197	160,287
Total,	1,516,803	2,155,579	1,063,065	889,488	886,987	1,430,514	488,503	554,933	14,885,860	15,015,814	6,968,673	8,516,315
Add entered for consumption,	5,421,984	4,853,057	10,173,127	6,415,345	5,789,869	3,564,009	5,647,595	5,912,265	67,890,663	54,047,951	104,202,138	88,721,609
Total thrown upon the market,	6,938,787	7,008,636	11,206,192	7,254,833	6,676,856	4,994,523	6,136,098	6,467,198	82,726,523	69,063,765	111,165,811	97,237,924

VALUE OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING DURING THE SAME PERIOD.

Months.	Manufactures of Wool.				Manufactures of Cotton.				Manufactures of Silk.			
	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
January,	$ 193,220	$ 215,866	$ 122,326	$ 410,357	$ 417,823	$ 423,772	$ 252,675	$ 368,950	$ 307,892	$ 425,444	$ 104,264	$ 249,875
February,	289,577	215,031	106,179	245,118	390,076	492,805	87,387	253,830	294,126	127,822	52,431	152,970
March,	272,418	209,859	182,723	224,154	201,277	254,105	134,588	182,654	288,898	183,529	28,418	112,854
April,	1,177,929	122,899	196,371	207,484	270,004	69,826	54,249	179,526	846,521	78,823	17,951	140,278
May,	731,098	163,208	377,576	419,848	267,983	71,749	72,502	188,278	513,433	41,084	48,447	161,898
June,	1,414,270	194,408	613,278	387,213	499,023	51,179	146,179	153,696	927,159	87,198	140,643	188,220
July,	1,870,859	422,739	771,660	447,282	423,118	66,560	164,492	178,709	702,792	78,715	133,849	182,227
August,	424,368	239,784	880,120	422,654	147,737	105,679	236,627	356,876	300,416	78,243	141,549	127,881
September,	822,875	178,150	185,812	160,150	357,850	100,492	115,460	176,704	853,312	44,466	67,446	46,469
October,	776,952	94,022	154,182	330,908	520,988	78,761	119,899	199,871	915,272	40,216	58,051	64,275
November,	482,084	99,116	348,028	345,911	575,026	152,382	349,168	543,843	465,408	65,055	150,680	242,428
December,	286,328	117,744	249,816	881,319	707,510	168,068	616,600	1,071,377	864,396	86,784	276,963	844,286
Total,	8,191,964	2,272,776	3,638,021	4,482,343	4,778,415	2,035,878	2,349,776	3,854,309	6,279,100	1,232,379	1,215,187	2,463,106
Add entered for consumption,	19,728,183	16,463,299	33,691,020	30,050,579	14,469,046	10,068,646	22,431,488	13,867,416	22,481,651	17,099,981	32,467,460	32,525,604
Total entered at the port,	27,920,147	18,736,075	37,329,041	34,532,922	19,247,461	12,104,024	24,781,264	17,721,725	28,760,751	18,332,810	33,682,647	34,988,710

Months.	Manufactures of Flax.				Miscellaneous.				Total.			
	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
January,	$ 158,407	$ 115,141	$ 58,801	$ 67,492	$ 62,123	$ 88,993	$ 10,811	$ 54,060	$1,189,465	$1,269,221	$ 548,877	$ 1,150,734
February,	199,050	126,395	40,856	59,285	67,568	76,831	45,900	66,700	1,190,307	1,088,833	333,758	775,908
March,	127,340	137,774	51,457	60,804	76,783	89,216	36,103	123,514	966,156	824,482	383,284	702,980
April,	426,986	58,196	62,267	77,307	138,012	61,918	25,459	46,681	2,859,402	386,662	356,305	651,276
May,	207,276	59,936	74,487	43,134	160,134	38,057	53,816	78,898	1,879,919	874,027	626,778	891,541
June,	167,017	47,066	70,328	9,945	280,407	20,243	70,863	25,815	3,287,876	350,094	1,040,786	714,889
July,	183,720	63,224	79,446	75,079	244,121	45,067	83,583	80,242	2,874,610	676,805	1,182,485	913,489
August,	106,562	54,270	121,655	72,347	149,834	18,971	66,602	40,174	1,128,913	491,899	946,553	1,019,982
September,	875,242	79,043	130,088	48,329	228,212	46,607	88,307	84,419	2,137,491	448,758	587,113	466,071
October,	341,985	80,506	110,066	66,070	222,061	51,266	55,749	53,488	2,777,208	348,771	498,797	714,557
November,	802,413	85,803	80,641	353,247	202,157	44,132	97,385	116,252	2,027,088	396,488	1,025,902	1,601,681
December,	188,043	57,391	66,420	566,268	189,777	38,018	84,424	192,544	1,736,054	468,005	1,294,228	3,555,744
Total,	2,782,141	909,745	947,357	1,408,807	2,021,189	619,324	618,457	662,232	25,004,581	7,091,595	8,768,806	13,158,797
Add entered for consumption,	5,421,934	4,853,057	10,173,127	6,415,345	5,789,869	3,564,009	5,647,595	5,912,265	67,890,668	54,047,951	104,202,188	88,721,609
Total entered at the port,	8,154,075	5,762,802	11,120,484	7,914,152	7,811,008	4,188,333	6,266,052	6,574,497	92,895,244	61,139,546	112,970,944	101,880,406

REAL AND PERSONAL PROPERTY IN NEW-YORK.

Tabular Statement of the aggregate assessed value of Real Property in the City of New-York, each year, 1826—1860. II. *Value of Personal Estate.* III. *Aggregate value of real and Personal Property.* IV. *Amount of Taxes raised each Year.* V. *Population of the City, according to the Census, and estimated Population at the intermediate periods.* VI. *Rate of Taxation to aggregate Property.* VII. *Population of United States,* 1826—1860.

Year.	Value of Real Estate.	Value of Personal Estate.	Total Real and Personal.	Amount raised by Tax.	Population.	Per centage of Taxation to Property.	Total Population of U. States.
1826,	$ 64,804,050 ..	$ 42,434,981 ..	$ 107,238,931 ..	$ 868,759 ..	168,000 ..	.86 ..	11,888,000
1827,	72,617,770 ..	39,594,156 ..	112,211,926 ..	437,692 ..	172,000 ..	.39 ..	11,729,000
1828,	77,138,880 ..	36,879,658 ..	114,019,538 ..	485,751 ..	182,000 ..	.43 ..	12,092,000
1829,	76,130,430 ..	35,672,636 ..	111,803,066 ..	507,107 ..	192,000 ..	.45 ..	12,471,000
1830,	87,608,580 ..	37,684,938 ..	125,288,518 ..	509,178 ..	202,589 ..	.41 ..	12,866,020
1831,	95,594,335 ..	41,966,194 ..	137,560,259 ..	572,104 ..	212,000 ..	.42 ..	13,241,000
1832,	104,160,605 ..	40,741,728 ..	144,902,328 ..	665,885 ..	222,000 ..	.46 ..	13,625,000
1833,	114,124,566 ..	52,366,976 ..	166,491,542 ..	971,854 ..	232,000 ..	.58 ..	14,020,000
1834,	123,249,280 ..	63,299,231 ..	186,548,511 ..	835,605 ..	243,000 ..	.45 ..	14,425,000
1835,	143,742,425 ..	74,991,278 ..	218,723,703 ..	965,602 ..	254,000 ..	.44 ..	14,841,000
1836,	233,732,308 ..	75,758,617 ..	309,500,920 ..	1,085,180 ..	265,000 ..	.35 ..	15,266,000
1837,	196,450,109 ..	67,297,241 ..	263,747,350 ..	1,244,972 ..	276,000 ..	.47 ..	15,702,000
1838,	194,548,359 ..	69,609,582 ..	264,152,941 ..	1,486,993 ..	288,000 ..	.56 ..	16,147,000
1839,	196,940,134 ..	73,920,885 ..	270,869,019 ..	1,352,826 ..	300,000 ..	.50 ..	16,608,000
1840,	187,221,714 ..	65,011,801 ..	252,233,515 ..	1,354,885 ..	312,710 ..	.54 ..	17,069,458
1841,	186,359,948 ..	64,843,972 ..	251,194,920 ..	1,394,136 ..	325,000 ..	.56 ..	17,540,000
1842,	176,513,092 ..	61,292,559 ..	237,805,651 ..	2,081,882 ..	339,000 ..	.85 ..	18,043,000
1843,	164,955,314 ..	64,274,765 ..	229,229,079 ..	1,747,516 ..	354,000 ..	.76 ..	18,577,000
1844,	171,987,591 ..	64,789,552 ..	236,727,143 ..	1,988,818 ..	371,000 ..	.84 ..	19,142,000
1845,	177,207,990 ..	62,787,527 ..	239,995,517 ..	2,096,191 ..	390,000 ..	.87 ..	19,738,000
1846,	183,480,534 ..	61,471,470 ..	244,952,004 ..	2,526,146 ..	411,000 ..	1.03 ..	20,366,000
1847,	187,315,386 ..	59,837,913 ..	247,153,299 ..	2,581,776 ..	434,000 ..	1.05 ..	21,026,000
1848,	198,029,076 ..	61,164,447 ..	254,163,523 ..	2,715,510 ..	459,000 ..	1.07 ..	21,716,000
1849,	197,741,919 ..	58,455,224 ..	256,197,143 ..	3,005,762 ..	487,000 ..	1.17 ..	22,438,000
1850,	207,142,576 ..	78,919,240 ..	286,061,816 ..	3,280,085 ..	515,547 ..	1.13 ..	23,191,876
1851,	227,015,856 ..	93,095,001 ..	320,110,857 ..	2,924,455 ..	543,000 ..	.91 ..	23,951,000
1852,	253,278,334 ..	98,490,042 ..	351,768,426 ..	3,880,511 ..	571,000 ..	.96 ..	24,720,000
1853,	294,637,296 ..	118,994,137 ..	413,631,332 ..	5,066,698 ..	599,000 ..	1.23 ..	25,499,000
1854,	330,300,396 ..	131,721,338 ..	462,021,734 ..	4,845,886 ..	627,000 ..	1.05 ..	26,288,000
1855,	336,975,866 ..	150,022,312 ..	486,998,278 ..	5,843,822 ..	655,000 ..	1.20 ..	27,088,000
1856,	340,972,098 ..	170,774,393 ..	511,740,491 ..	7,075,425 ..	684,000 ..	1.38 ..	27,897,000
1857,	352,958,808 ..	168,216,449 ..	521,175,252 ..	8,111,758 ..	713,000 ..	1.56 ..	28,716,000
1858,	368,346,296 ..	162,847,994 ..	531,194,290 ..	8,021,091 ..	742,000 ..	1.62 ..	29,545,000
1859,	378,954,930 ..	172,968,192 ..	551,923,122 ..	9,860,926 ..	771,000 ..	1.79 ..	30,384,000
1860,	398,588,619 ..	178,697,637 ..	577,286,656 ..	9,758,507 ..	813,668 ..	1.69 ..	31,641,977
				$ 101,664,694			

Table showing the Population of New-York County, State of New-York, as returned by the Eighth Census, taken June 1st, 1860.—(*Official.*)

New-York City.	Population.	New-York City.	Population.
1st Ward,	17,878 ..	17th Ward,	72,958
2d Ward,	2,507 ..	18th Ward,	57,462
3d Ward,	3,757 ..	19th Ward,	28,254
4th Ward,	21,994 ..	20th Ward,	67,519
5th Ward,	22,336 ..	21st Ward,	49,017
6th Ward,	26,696 ..	22d Ward,	61,725
7th Ward,	39,982 ..		
8th Ward,	39,406 ..	Population of New-York City,	805,657
9th Ward,	44,385 ..	Blackwell's Island,	4,581
10th Ward,	29,004 ..	Ward's Island,	772
11th Ward,	59,570 ..	Bedloe's Island,	4
12th Ward,	27,958 ..	Ellis' Island,	5
13th Ward,	32,917 ..	Governor's Island,	696
14th Ward,	28,080 ..	Randall's Island,	1,953
15th Ward,	27,585 ..		
16th Ward,	45,177 ..	Population of New-York County,	813,668

POPULATION OF THE STATE OF NEW-YORK.

The following table represents the aggregate population of each County of the State of New-York, according to each State census and each U. S. census, from 1790 to 1860. The State census was taken in the years 1825, 1835, 1845 and 1855:

Counties.	1790.	1800.	1810.	1814.	1820.	1825.	1830.	1835.	1840.	1845.	1850.	1855.	1860.
Albany,.....	75,786 ..	84,043 ..	84,661 ..	88,885 ..	38,116 ..	42,821 ..	53,520 ..	59,762 ..	69,598 ..	77,268 ..	93,279 ..	103,681 ..	113,919
Alleghany,....	.... ..	.... ..	1,942 ..	8,834 ..	9,330 ..	18,164 ..	26,276 ..	35,214 ..	40,975 ..	40,084 ..	37,508 ..	42,910 ..	41,682
Broome,.....	.... ..	.... ..	8,130 ..	9,581 ..	14,848 ..	13,893 ..	17,579 ..	20,190 ..	22,833 ..	25,803 ..	30,660 ..	36,650 ..	35,910
Cattaraugus,...	.... ..	.... ..	459 ..	.... ..	4,090 ..	8,643 ..	16,724 ..	24,986 ..	28,872 ..	30,169 ..	38,950 ..	39,580 ..	43,897
Cayuga,.....	.... ..	15,871 ..	29,343 ..	37,813 ..	38,897 ..	42,743 ..	47,948 ..	49,202 ..	50,388 ..	49,668 ..	55,458 ..	58,571 ..	55,769
Chautauque,...	.... ..	.... ..	2,381 ..	4,259 ..	12,568 ..	20,610 ..	34,671 ..	44,869 ..	47,975 ..	46,548 ..	50,493 ..	53,330 ..	53,854
Chemung,.....	.... ..	... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	20,789 ..	23,689 ..	28 821 ..	27.258 ..	26,917
Chenango,....	.... ..	15,666 ..	21,704 ..	24,221 ..	31,215 ..	34,215 ..	37,283 ..	40,762 ..	40,785 ..	39,900 ..	40,311 ..	39.915 ..	40.936
Clinton,.....	1,614 ..	8,514 ..	8,002 ..	7,764 ..	12 070 ..	14,486 ..	19,344 ..	20.742 ..	28,157 ..	31,278 ..	40,047 ..	42,482 ..	45,786
Columbia,.....	27,782 ..	35,322 ..	32,390 ..	33,979 ..	33.330 ..	37,970 ..	39.907 ..	40,746 ..	43,252 ..	41,976 ..	43,073 ..	44,391 ..	47,250
Cortlandt,.....	.... ..	.... ..	8.869 ..	10,293 ..	16,507 ..	20,271 ..	23,791 ..	24,168 ..	24,607 ..	25,081 ..	25,140 ..	24,575 ..	26,296
Delaware,.....	.... ..	10,228 ..	20,308 ..	21,290 ..	26,587 ..	29,565 ..	33,024 ..	34.192 ..	35,896 ..	36.990 ..	39.834 ..	39,749 ..	42,467
Dutchess,.....	45,266 ..	42,775 ..	51,363 ..	48,708 ..	46,615 ..	46,698 ..	50,926 ..	50,704 ..	52.338 ..	55,124 .	58,993 ..	60,685 ..	64,989
Erie,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	24,816 ..	35,719 ..	57,594 ..	62,465 ..	78.635 ..	100,993 ..	152,331 ..	141,978
Essex,.....	.... ..	* ..	9,477 ..	9,949 ..	12,811 ..	15,993 ..	19,287 ..	20,699 ..	23,634 ..	25,102 ..	31,148 ..	28,589 ..	28,214
Franklin,.....	.... ..	.... ..	2,617 ..	2,568 ..	4,439 ..	7,978 ..	11,312 ..	12,501 ..	16,518 ..	18,693 ..	25.102 ..	25,477 ..	30,886
Fulton,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	18,049 ..	18,579 ..	20,171 ..	23,284 ..	24,162
Genesee,.....	.... ..	.... ..	12,589 ..	23,975 ..	38,093 ..	40,905 ..	52,147 ..	58,588 ..	59,587 ..	28,845 ..	28,488 ..	31,084 ..	32,189
Greene,.....	.... ..	12,584 ..	19,586 ..	20,211 ..	22,996 ..	26,229 ..	29,525 ..	30,173 ..	30,446 ..	31,957 ..	33,126 ..	31,137 ..	31,930
Hamilton,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	1.251 ..	† ..	1,325 ..	† ..	1,907 ..	1,882 ..	2,188 ..	2,543 ..	3,024
Herkimer,.....	.... ..	14,479 ..	22,046 ..	20,837 ..	31,017 ..	33,010 ..	35,870 ..	36.201 ..	37,477 ..	37,424 ..	38,244 ..	38,566 ..	40,560
Jefferson,.....	.... ..	.... ..	15,140 ..	18,564 ..	32,952 ..	41,650 ..	49,498 ..	53.088 ..	60.934 ..	64,999 ..	68,153 ..	65,420 ..	69,823
Kings,.....	4,495 ..	5,740 ..	8,303 ..	7,655 ..	11,187 ..	14.679 ..	20,535 ..	32,057 ..	47,613 ..	78,691 ..	138,882 ..	216,229 ..	279,125
Lewis,.....	.... ..	.... ..	6,433 ..	6,848 ..	9,227 ..	11,669 ..	15,239 ..	16,093 ..	17,830 ..	20,218 ..	24,564 ..	25,229 ..	26,581
Livingston,....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	23,860 ..	27,729 ..	31,092 ..	35,140 ..	33,193 ..	40,875 ..	37,948 ..	39,546
Madison,.....	.... ..	.... ..	25,144 ..	26,276 ..	32,208 ..	35,616 ..	39,098 ..	41,741 ..	40,008 ..	40,987 ..	43,079 ..	43,687 ..	43,536
Monroe,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	39,103 ..	49,855 ..	58,085 ..	64,902 ..	70,899 ..	87,650 ..	96,324 ..	100,659
Montgomery,..	26,848 ..	21,700 ..	41,214 ..	40,640 ..	37,569 ..	40,909 ..	43,715 ..	43,859 .	35,818 ..	29,643 ..	31,992 ..	30,308 ..	30,867

New-York,....	33,131 ..	60,489 ..	96,373 ..	95,519 ..	123,706 ..	166,086 ..	197,112 ..	270,089 ..	312,710 ..	371,223 ..	515,547 ..	629,904 ..	813,668
Niagara,.....	.... ..	.... ..	8,971 ..	7,477 ..	22,900 ..	14,069 ..	18,482 ..	26,490 ..	31,132 ..	34,550 ..	42,276 ..	48,282 ..	50,399
Oneida,.....	.... ..	22,047 ..	33,792 ..	45,228 ..	50,997 ..	57,947 ..	71,326 ..	77,518 ..	85,310 ..	84,776 ..	99,566 ..	107,749 ..	105,201
Onondaga,....	.... ..	7 406 ..	25.957 ..	30,801 ..	41,467 ..	49,485 ..	58,973 ..	60,908 ..	67 911 ..	70,175 ..	85,590 ..	86,575 ..	90,687
Ontario,.....	1,075 ..	15,218 ..	42.032 ..	56,892 ..	68,267 ..	37,422 ..	40,268 ..	40,870 ..	43.501 ..	42.592 ..	43,929 ..	42,672 ..	44.566
Orange,.....	18,492 ..	29,315 ..	31,847 ..	34,908 ..	41,213 ..	41,732 ..	45.866 ..	45.096 ..	50,739 ..	52 227 ..	57,115 ..	60,868 ..	63,814
Orleans,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	14,160 ..	17,782 ..	22,893 ..	25.127 ..	25,845 ..	28,501 ..	28,485 ..	28,717
Oswego,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	12,374 ..	17,875 ..	27.119 ..	38.245 ..	43,619 ..	48,441 ..	62 198 ..	69.899 ..	75,960
Otsego,.....	.... ..	21,636 ..	38,802 ..	40,587 ..	44,856 ..	47,898 ..	51.872 ..	50,428 ..	49,628 ..	50.509 ..	48.638 ..	49,735 ..	50,166
Putnam,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	9,358 ..	11,268 ..	11,866 ..	12,625 ..	11,551 ..	12,825 ..	13,258 ..	14,188 ..	13,934 ..	14.002
Queens,.....	16,014 ..	16,893 ..	19,336 ..	19,269 ..	21,519 ..	20,331 ..	22,460 ..	25,180 ..	30,324 ..	31,849 ..	36.883 ..	46,266 ..	57,391
Rensselaer,....	.... ..	30,442 ..	36,309 ..	36,838 ..	40,158 ..	44,065 ..	49,424 ..	55,515 ..	60,259 ..	62,388 ..	73,363 ..	79,234 ..	56.825
Richmond,....	3,835 ..	4,563 ..	5,347 ..	5,502 ..	6,135 ..	5,982 ..	7.082 ..	7,691 ..	10,965 ..	13,678 ..	15.061 ..	21.339 ..	25,498
Rockland,.....	.... ..	6,353 ..	7,758 ..	7,817 ..	8,337 ..	8,016 ..	9,383 ..	9,696 ..	11,975 ..	13,741 ..	16,962 ..	19.511 ..	22,492
St. Lawrence,..	.... ..	.... ..	7,885 ..	8,252 ..	16,037 ..	27,595 ..	36,354 ..	42,047 ..	56,706 ..	62.354 ..	65,617 ..	74 977 ..	90.428
Saratoga,.....	.... ..	24,488 ..	33 147 ..	31,189 ..	36,052 ..	36,295 ..	38,679 ..	38,012 .	40.553 ..	41,477 ..	45,646 ..	49,879 ..	51.782
Schenectady,..	... ..	.... ..	10,201 ..	11,208 ..	13,081 ..	12,876 ..	12,847 ..	16,280 ..	17,337 ..	16,680 ..	20,054 ..	19,573 ..	20.002
Schoharie,....	.... ..	9,808 ..	18,945 ..	19,823 ..	23,154 ..	25,926 ..	27,902 ..	28,508 ..	32,858 ..	32,488 ..	33,548 ..	33,519 ..	31,469
Schuyler,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	18,777 ..	18 540
Seneca,.....	.... ..	.... ..	16,609 ..	21,401 ..	23,619 ..	20,169 ..	21.041 ..	22.627 ..	24,879 ..	24,972 ..	25,441 ..	25,358 ..	28,139
Steuben,.....	.... ..	1,788 ..	7,246 ..	11,121 ..	21,959 ..	29,245 ..	33,851 ..	41.435 ..	46,138 ..	51.679 ..	63,771 ..	62,965 ..	66,689
Suffolk,.....	16,440 ..	19,464 ..	21,113 ..	21,363 ..	24,272 ..	23,695 ..	26,780 ..	28,274 ..	32,469 ..	34.579 ..	36,922 ..	40,906 ..	43,276
Sullivan,.....	.... ..	.... ..	6,108 ..	6,238 ..	8,900 ..	10,378 ..	12,364 ..	13,755 ..	15,629 ..	18,727 ..	25,088 ..	29,487 ..	32,385
Tioga,.....	.... ..	6,859 ..	7,899 ..	10,438 ..	19,971 ..	19,951 ..	27,690 ..	33,999 ..	20,597 ..	22.456 ..	24.850 ..	26,962 ..	28,739
Tompkins,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	20,681 ..	32,908 ..	36,545 ..	38,008 ..	37,948 ..	38,168 ..	38.746 ..	31,516 ..	31,411
Ulster,.....	29,897 ..	24,855 ..	26,576 ..	26,428 ..	30,234 ..	32,015 ..	36,550 ..	39,960 ..	45,822 ..	49,907 ..	59,384 ..	67,936 ..	76,879
Warren,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	7,888 ..	9,458 ..	10,906 ..	11,796 ..	12,084 ..	13,422 ..	14,908 ..	17,199 ..	19,669 ..	21,434
Washington,..	14,042 ..	35,574 ..	44,289 ..	36,359 ..	38,881 ..	39,280 ..	42,635 ..	39,826 ..	41,080 ..	40,554 ..	44,750 ..	44,405 ..	45,909
Wayne,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	26,761 ..	33,648 ..	37,788 ..	42,057 ..	42,515 ..	44,958 ..	46,760 ..	47,762
Westchester,...	24,003 ..	27,428 ..	30,272 ..	26,367 ..	32,638 ..	33,131 ..	36,456 ..	38,790 ..	48,686 ..	47,578 ..	58 263 ..	80,673 ..	99,457
Wyoming,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	27,205 ..	31,981 ..	32,140 ..	31,967
Yates,.....	.... ..	.... ..	. .. ..	.... ..	.... ..	13,214 ..	19,009 ..	19,796 ..	20,444 ..	20,777 ..	20,590 ..	19,812 ..	20,291
Total,.....	340,120	588,603	961,888	1,085,910	1,372,812	1,614,456	1,918,131	2,174,517	2,428,921	2,604,495	3,097,394	3,466,212	3,887,542

* Reported with Clinton. † Reported with Montgomery.

THE PROGRESS OF BANKING IN NEW-YORK.

Summary Statement, showing the progress of Bank Capital, Circulation, Individual Deposits, Loans and Specie of the Banks of the State of New-York, in the years 1848—1860.

	Capital.	*Circulation.*	*Deposits.*	*Loans.*	*Specie.*
June, 1848,.....	$ 43,755,000 ..	$ 20,888,000 ..	$ 27,554,000 ..	$ 73,497,000 ..	$ 6,881,000
" 1849,.....	44,929,000 ..	21,912,000 ..	35,604,000 ..	85,235,000 ..	10,571,000
" 1850,.....	47,779,000 ..	24,214,000 ..	46,691,000 ..	98,480,000 ..	11,658,000
" 1851,.....	55,560,000 ..	27,511,000 ..	54,467,000 ..	115,677,000 ..	6,978,000
" 1852,.....	59,705,000 ..	27,940,000 ..	65,034,000 ..	127,245,000 ..	13,304,000
March, 1853,.....	67,623,000 ..	30,063,000 ..	81,316,000 ..	147,687,000 ..	10,059,000
June, "	73,183,000 ..	30,065,000 ..	79,996,000 ..	151,506,000 ..	13,384,000
Sept., "	76,692,075 ..	32,762,650 ..	77,167,075 ..	157,455,987 ..	12,909,240
Dec., "	79,018 980 ..	32,578,189 ..	78,060,490 ..	158,118,468 ..	14,149,760
March, 1854,.....	80,702,396 ..	32,871,206 ..	81,140,877 ..	154,742,164 ..	17,553,778
June, "	81,589,000 ..	31,266,000 ..	82,637,000 ..	158,875,000 ..	10,792,000
Sept., "	83,773,293 ..	31,507,780 ..	81,068,103 ..	168,752,287 ..	13,661,565
Dec., "	83,260,000 ..	28,220,000 ..	71,096,000 ..	141,604,000 ..	13,470,000
March, 1855,.....	84,681,000 ..	27,909,000 ..	79,727,000 ..	152,161,000 ..	17.946,000
June, "	85,032,000 ..	28,562,000 ..	83,587,000 ..	165,106,000 ..	15,921,000
Sept., "	85,589,000 ..	31,340,000 ..	85,610,000 ..	166,002,000 ..	10,910,000
Dec., "	86,890,000 ..	31,990.000 ..	85,644,000 ..	165,196,000 ..	11,541,000
March, 1856,.....	89,779,388 ..	30,579,902 ..	91,297,476 ..	171,810,779 ..	15,988,698
June, "	92,334,000 ..	30,705,000 ..	96,267,000 ..	174,141,000 ..	18,510,000
Sept., "	96,861,301 ..	34,019,633 ..	96,907,970 ..	183,888,670 ..	12,598,771
Dec., "	100,025,000 ..	33,590,000 ..	94,872,000 ..	188,557,000 ..	11,893,000
March, 1857,.....	102,505,000 ..	32,510,000 ..	100,641,000 ..	183,088,000 ..	11,978,000
June, "	103,954,000 ..	32,335,000 ..	104,350,000 ..	190,808,000 ..	14,379,000
Sept., "	107,507,000 ..	27,122,000 ..	83,589,000 ..	170,846,000 ..	14,321,000
Dec., "	107,449,000 ..	23,899,000 ..	81,128,000 ..	154,210,000 ..	29,814,000
March, 1858,.....	109,587,000 ..	22,710,000 ..	92,633,000 ..	161,857,000 ..	35,071,000
June, "	103,940,000 ..	24,079,000 ..	98,921,000 ..	178,853,000 ..	33,597,000
Sept., "	109,996,550 ..	26,605,407 ..	101,218,691 ..	186,187,899 ..	29,905,295
Dec., "	110,258,000 ..	28,507,000 ..	103,170,000 ..	192,150,000 ..	28,335,000
March, 1859,.....	110,562,000 ..	27,979,000 ..	109,240,000 ..	190,429,000 ..	26,514,000
June, "	110,605,000 ..	26,759,000 ..	99,597,000 ..	185,027,000 ..	22,267,000
Sept., "	110,997,000 ..	27,970,000 ..	103,106,000 ..	182,490,000 ..	22,026,000
Dec., "	111,441,000 ..	29,959,000 ..	102,109,000 ..	191,162,000 ..	20,921,000
March, 1860,.....	111,161,418 ..	29,441,159 ..	109,389,371 ..	195,288,948 ..	24,620.538
June, "	111,494 393 ..	28,839,194 ..	110,465,543 ..	196,908,063 ..	24,582 219
Sept., "	111,834.000 ..	31,759,000 ..	116,190,000 ..	200,118,000 ..	21,710,000
Dec., "	111,821,000 ..	28,239,000 ..	110,664,000 ..	202,241,000 ..	26,427,000

The number of banks, banking associations and individual bankers actually doing business in this State, on the 30th day of September last, was 306, and 37 were either closing their own affairs or are insolvent, and their business is being closed by this department, leaving 343 open bank accounts upon the books of this office.

The entire emission of bank notes from the Bank Department, including that of incorporated banks, banking associations and individual bankers, is $38,034,800, against $36,581,276 in 1859, being an increase during the past fiscal year of $1,453,524.

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE AND BOARDS OF TRADE.

I. New-York. II. Boston. III. Montreal.

Monthly Meeting of the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New-York, Thursday, June 6th.

Election of New Members—Medals for the Officers and Men who Garrisoned Fort Sumter and Fort Pickens—Flax in place of Cotton—Improvements of Fortifications in the Harbor of New-York—Resolutions in relation to the Death of Mr. Hoffman, *&c.*

The regular monthly meeting of the Chamber of Commerce was held at their rooms Thursday, June 6th, at one o'clock P. M., the President, Pelatiah Perit, Esq., in the chair.

The following gentlemen, proposed at the last monthly meeting, were elected members of the Chamber:

Josiah S. Bennet, 125 Front-street.	Henry G. Reeve, 231 Front-street.
S. De W. Bloodgood, 110 B'way.	Livingston Satterlee, 56 Wall-st.
Charles Butler, 12 Wall-street.	Geo. G. Spencer, 106 Front-street.
Thomas N. Dale, 18 Warren-street.	Henry F. Vail, 29 Nassau-street.
Samuel Jaudon, 54 Wall-street.	Samuel Wetmore, 59 Pine-street.
William P. Jones, 109 Wall-street.	Wm. Aug. White, 63 Broadway.

On motion of Prosper M. Wetmore, the proposed amendments to the by-laws relating to the election, on the 2d May last, of a committee of arbitration, to whom all mercantile disputes should be referred, the proceedings were confirmed as the action of the Chamber. In connection with this subject Mr. Opdyke, the chairman of the Arbitration Committee, announced that the committee was organized and prepared to transact any business that might be referred to them.

Mr. Royal Phelps, in rising to introduce a subject, which he said did not properly come within the line of business for which the Chamber was created to consider, wished first to apologize for bringing forward a matter which, in reality, was irrelevant. But he had been requested by a distinguished gentleman, whom they all knew well, to bring before the Chamber the propriety of doing something to commemorate the gallantry of the garrison at Fort Sumter, particularly of the men. The idea which had been thus suggested to him harmonized so entirely with his own sentiments that he had concluded to present it, and he had no doubt they would take up the question, although it was strictly outside the usual occupation of the Chamber. He proposed the following resolution:

Resolved, That the Executive Committee of this Chamber, after consultation with and subject to the approval of Colonel Anderson *or his second in command, cause to be prepared a suitable medal for each of the soldiers and non-commissioned officers of the late garrison of Fort Sumter, and to have them presented to them at as early a day as possible, at the expense of this Chamber.*

In presenting some remarks explaining the reasons why he offered the

resolution, Mr. PHELPS said it would be observed that he had taken no notice of the officers; but his principal object was that notice should be taken of the soldiers, without whose cheerful acquiescence in the wishes of the officers it would have been impossible that so much honor should have been reflected upon our flag in the manner in which it was surrendered. Another reason was, that the soldiers in the service of our country, republican and democratic as it is, have a less opportunity for distinction open to them than the soldiers of any other country in the world. Our officers were always called from the higher classes of society, and educated at public expense. There were few instances wherein a soldier in the regular army rose to the distinction of an officer. A different state of things exists in the French and English armies, where brave men were taken out of the ranks, rewarded with promotion and decorated by their sovereigns. Reward in our service was made only through an act of Congress, which was a cumbersome mode. He knew there was a deep sympathy felt by the merchants and every class of people in the country with the soldiers, and when conduct like that of the garrison of Fort Sumter, who stood at their posts when there was almost a forlorn hope, and who, when the national flag was stricken down, brought it tenderly in their arms, as it were, to this city, he thought something should be done to reward them. He made a distinction between the men and the officers, not because he wished to disparage the conduct of the latter, but because while the officers had received many attentions which showed that their services were appreciated, the men had not; therefore he hoped the resolution would be adopted without the amendment, and that the style and price of the medals would be left entirely to the judgment of the Executive Committee.

Mr. GEORGE W. BLUNT seconded the resolution, moving an amendment that the garrison of Fort Pickens, which was under command of Lieutenant SLEMMER, be added to the list.

Mr. GEORGE OPDYKE thought it would be an indirect censure upon the officers to leave them out, and he moved that they be included. This suggestion was accepted by Mr. BLUNT.

Mr. PHELPS was sorry, he said, to be compelled to object to the amendment. He saw no good reason to include the command of Lieut. SLEMMER, particularly as it would destroy the distinctive point which he wished to establish in rewarding the garrison of Fort Sumter. The defence of Fort Sumter, and the attention which that garrison attracted from the people of the United States, required some special recognition. It was the first firing upon any important post at the flag of their country, by our very mistaken and very rash brethren at the South. That act produced such a revolution in sentiment as had never before been experienced in this country. It had united men of the North who had different party preferences, and brought them to the sustainment of the government in its efforts to put down this rebellion at the South. It was the gallant conduct of that garrison which produced that result. Fort Sumter was spoken of all over the world. From there went forth the electric spark which was to save the honor of the constitution; and he wanted to confine his motion specially to Fort Sumter on that account. He hoped Mr. BLUNT would withdraw his amendment.

Mr. DENNING DUER said he hoped it would not be withdrawn, for if it should be, he would renew it.

The resolution was modified so as to include the officers and garrison which were under command of Major ANDERSON at Fort Sumter, and Lieutenant SLEMMER at Fort Pickens, and as amended was adopted, viz.:

Resolved, That the Executive Committee of the Chamber cause to be prepared a suitable medal for each of the officers and soldiers of the late garrison of Fort Sumter, under command of Major ROBERT ANDERSON, *and of Fort Pickens, under command of* Lieutenant ADAM J. SLEMMER, *and that the same be presented to them at the earliest day possible, at the expense of the Chamber.*

Mr. SAMUEL B. RUGGLES presented the following resolution for the consideration of the Chamber:

Resolved, That it be referred to a committee of ——— members of the Chamber of Commerce of New-York, to inquire and report as to the progress made in chemical, mechanical or other processes for substituting the fiber of flax for that of cotton.

Mr. GEORGE W. BLUNT seconded the resolution. (Specimens of hats, hosiery and felt cloth, manufactured from the fiber of flax, were exhibited to the members.)

Mr. RUGGLES in moving the resolution, said that the subject of inquiry which it proposed was of importance, not only in an industrial and commercial point of view, but had recently acquired a vastly increased interest in its national and high political bearings. It is not merely a question, large as that might be, of the employment of millions of acres of our lands, and hundreds of thousands of our rural population in a new branch of prosperous industry, nor yet of the increased stimulus to manufactures and commerce, in the fabrication and transportation of a material, as yet nearly unknown. The great question really is, to discover, if possible, the means of commercial and political emancipation from the dominion of that virtual monopoly in the production of cotton, by a comparatively small section of our republic, which has not only involved it in civil war, but is now greatly endangering the peace of the civilized world. It is to determine whether we shall or shall not submit, without a struggle, to a giant monopoly, which emboldens its possessor to dictate, not only law and government, but morals and manners to all mankind. We need not dwell on the dangerous and galling character of this pretension. It is already sufficiently manifest, both in commerce and politics, leading at once to the most energetic efforts by Great Britain and its subjects, to penetrate every region of the globe, to discover and develop such new sources of supply as shall free them from their present dependence on the cotton regions of our North American continent. These efforts have been so far successful as to induce the belief, that within a moderate period adequate supplies will be forthcoming for the use of the world. It need hardly be urged that this great effort for the commercial emancipation of the civilized nations of the earth would be materially aided by the discovery and cheap production of any material which could take the place of cotton to any considerable extent. It is, therefore, to this subject, that the attention of the Chamber of Commerce is now respectfully requested, as a proper subject of attention and thorough inquiry. Without pretending in any way to prejudge the results of such an examination, it may safely be asserted that the facts already ascertained, in respect to the progress made in this country to sub-

stitute the fiber of flax for that of cotton, will entitle the subject to a full examination by a committee of this body.

The idea of substituting the fiber of flax for that of cotton is by no means a new one. It was proposed in England as early as the year 1775, and with partial success, and repeatedly afterwards in Germany, Bohemia and other parts of Europe, by various processes suggested in the years 1780, 1801, 1803 and 1816. It was in the year 1850 that the Chevalier CLAUSSEN obtained his patent in England for extricating the fiber of flax by means of chemical agencies, in lieu of the former tedious, wasteful and unhealthy process of rotting by dew or standing water. The importance of the suggestion excited at once the attention of our highly intelligent and patriotic fellow-countryman, Mr. ABBOTT LAWRENCE, then in London as American minister, and at his instance the subject was carefully examined in the year 1851, by a committee of the legislature of Massachusetts. The chemical process of CLAUSSEN, improved, as is said, by subsequent discoverers, after the delays incident to all new inventions, has proved so far successful, that the flax fiber thus extracted and prepared is now successfully manufactured in considerable quantities in various parts of New-England.

The precise details, and the character, value and cost of the fabric will necessarily form the subject of the careful scrutiny of the committee. In addition to these chemical agencies for extricating the fiber, mainly by solutions of acids and alkalies, another very interesting process of a mechanical character has lately been proposed, and proved to be very successful, by employing condensed steam as a disintegrating agent. It deserves the most attentive examination, it being claimed by the inventors that the flax fiber may be thereby prepared with great expedition and economy, so that it can be afforded in large quantities for a price not exceeding eight cents per pound. It is further stated, that an acre of flax land will yield a sufficient quantity to afford the material for a bale of fiber of about 400 pounds. It should be distinctly understood that the fiber of flax is not identical with that of cotton, in a botanical and physiological sense, but that they are greatly alike in color, weight and durability. It is by no means expected that it will wholly take the place of cotton, in all its varieties of fabric, but, according to present indications, it is claimed that it fairly promises to prove as a substitute for at least a portion of the coarser fabrics. Should it prove to be a substitute to any considerable extent, it must materially influence or hasten the solution of that great problem of the supply of cotton which is now agitating the various governments of the civilized world.

Mr. RICHARD LATHERS hoped the resolution would not pass. He thought that the Chamber, which was devoted more especially to commercial interests, should not fritter away its energies upon subjects of that kind. He did not think the arguments presented in favor of the resolution were as happy as they might be. Mr. LATHERS had travelled extensively in the South recently, and he found, he said, in nearly all cases, that the people of the South whose interests were connected with cotton, while they yielded to the storm which was blowing over them, yet cherished a strong affection for the Union. Therefore he deprecated any action that would be calculated to throw firebrands in the midst of the Union-loving people of the South, and oppose our government in effecting the establishing of the bond of Union throughout the country. The

government of the United States, he thought, was desirous of fostering legitimate industry in the South as well as in the North. He wanted us to show these Southern Union men that we did not want to put down their institution, but to put down this revolt. When the argument which had just been advanced by the preceding speaker should be read in the South, the idea it would convey would be, that instead of affording them protection and peace, we were anxious to destroy their industry. It was not true that the production and handling of cotton tended to divide this country; but, on the contrary, it tended to hold the sections together. He gloried in the sentiments enunciated by the Secretary of State, that the Union was not to be dissolved peaceably or otherwise. He was sorry there was not more Union sentiment in the South; but what did exist there was like leaven, and its influence would be felt. He was glad of the power the South commanded by her cotton, and the effect which the prospect of a short supply was producing upon England, for he regarded that staple not as the capital of the South, but the capital of the whole country. We had no intention of looking to a separation; but that resolution looked very much to a separation. The Southern demagogues had taught their people to hate every thing that came from New-England; but he hoped that a similar spirit would not be engendered by the North against the South. He hoped the resolution would not be adopted.

Mr. ROYAL PHELPS hoped that the debate would close, and that the resolution would not prevail.

Mr. DUER spoke briefly in favor of its adoption; for he saw no reason why King Flax should not have as fair a trial as King Cotton.

Mr. RUGGLES distinctly disclaimed any intention of disloyalty to the Union, and said he was surprised to hear such an intimation, when they knew that through the whole course of his life he had cherished the idea that, as cotton was providentially placed, the country must of necessity be held together.

After a few remarks from Mr. OPDYKE, in support of the measure, the resolution, on motion of Mr. PHELPS, was laid on the table, to be taken up at a future day.

Mr. BLUNT offered a resolution to the effect, that as other governments were building iron-plated steamships, calculated to resist the most improved guns now in use, the Chamber urge the government of the United States to build a number of those iron-plated steamships, and to complete the fortifications in the harbor of New-York, especially the one at Sandy Hook.

It was stated by several members that the fortifications at Sandy Hook were the most important of all, and should be immediately completed.

The PRESIDENT suggested that several distinct measures might be required in relation to these fortifications, and thought that it would be better for the subject to go to a committee.

Mr. PROSPER M. WETMORE entirely concurred in this view, and thought we might soon be involved in a war with Continental Europe, for which it was our duty to prepare.

Finally the subject was disposed of, for the present, by the adoption of the following resolution:

Resolved, That a committee be appointed to inquire into the present state of the defences of this port, and, if found defective, to prepare a

memorial to government on the subject, to be submitted to the Chamber for its action.

Messrs. OPDYKE, BLUNT, MARSHALL, DUER and NYE were named as the committee.

Mr. PHELPS presented the following resolutions, which were adopted:

Resolved, That the Chamber of Commerce and merchants of New-York, representing the unanimous sense of their body, record with sincere grief, and with high respect for his virtues, the death of LINDLEY MURRAY HOFFMAN, *a member of this Chamber for many years past, who departed this life yesterday.*

Resolved, That as a merchant, his industry, his systematic attention to business, his unwavering good faith and fidelity, his unspotted honor and unstained integrity, entitle him to a lasting good name in the commercial annals of our country.

Resolved, That we equally declare our high esteem for his virtues as a man, for his kindness of heart, his liberality in useful public enterprises, and his activity in works of charity; for his modesty, and also for his elevated Christian spirit; and for the unostentatious simplicity and blameless purity of his private life.

Resolved, That in common with the whole commercial community of this city, by whom he has been so long known and esteemed, we respectfully tender our sympathy to his mourning relatives and friends, and that these resolutions be communicated to them as a last mark of our respect.

Resolved, That a copy of these resolutions be transmitted by the Secretary to the family of the deceased member.

The Secretary reported that the Annual Report of the Chamber for the past year had been completed, and copies were now ready for distribution for the use of the members.

The following nominations were made June 6th, for election July 3d, 1861:

		Nominated by
HUGH N. CAMP,	149 Pearl-street,	BENJAMIN H. FIELD.
SAMUEL COLGATE,	4 Dutch-street,	EGISTO P. FABBRI.
CHARLES DIMON,	73 South-street,	CALEB BARSTOW.
JOHN EADIE,	40 Wall-street,	CALEB F. LINDSLEY.
WILLIAM LYELL,	34 Cedar-street,	J. SMITH HOMANS.
THOMAS RICHARDSON,	15 Broadway,	DANIEL OGDEN.
JAMES A. ROOSEVELT,	94 Maiden Lane,	J. LEE SMITH.
THEODORE ROOSEVELT,	94 Maiden Lane,	J. LEE SMITH.
BARNET L. SOLOMON,	369 Broadway,	JOHN H. LYELL.

As the first Thursday in July will fall on the anniversary of our national independence, the Chamber adjourned to meet on Wednesday, the 3d day of July.

Monthly Meeting of the Boston Board of Trade.

At a meeting of the government at the rooms of the Board, No. 55 Merchants' Exchange, on Monday, June 3, 1861, Vice-President RICHARD-

son in the chair, the committee on the present crisis presented their second report, as follows:

On the 7th of May your committee met HENRY L. WHITING, Esq., of the United States Coast Survey, at his request, to consider the subject of fitting out a fleet of fishing vessels to assist the blockading squadron on the Southern coast.

Mr. WHITING, who was direct from Washington, exhibited a paper signed by Commodore PAULDING, of the United States Navy, and followed in a verbal statement of the views and suggestions of the Commodore, in behalf, as was understood, of the Navy Department. This interview resulted in a second on the next day, when, by our invitation, several owners of fishing vessels and gentlemen engaged in business here and elsewhere were present. At the meeting on the 8th ult. Mr. WHITING again stated the objects of the government, and was followed by Commander SMITH, of the United States Navy, substantially in concurrence.

After further discussion on the part of our own citizens, voted, on motion of ALBERT G. BROWNE, Esq., that the chair appoint a committee of five to report the terms on which a fleet of from fifty to one hundred vessels of from fifty to one hundred tons burthen would be equipped for the proposed service.

This committee performed the duty assigned before the adjournment, and a written agreement, signed by several highly responsible persons, was prepared at the instant and delivered to Mr. WHITING for the consideration of the Navy Department, which gave a specific answer to each question propounded by Com. PAULDING.

Having thus initiated the measure, your committee, as in the case of the "Massachusetts Soldiers' Fund," left the further prosecution of it to others, and especially to the committee of five. But, as Mr. BROWNE, the chairman of that committee, has placed in our hands a copy of Mr. WHITING's letter to him, after a conference with Com. PAULDING at Washington, as well as a copy of his reply, we may remark that no arrangement has been made. Indeed, it seems by this correspondence that the Navy Department has abandoned the plan as concerns the present season, at least, to our regret, since we cannot but believe that a fleet of the kind suggested, composed of vessels of the most approved models, and manned by intelligent, energetic and brave seamen, who are thoroughly acquainted with every inlet and harbor between the Bay of Chaleur and the Gulf of Mexico, would prove of immense importance to the steamers and other ships of the navy in the existing blockade of the ports of the so-styled Confederate States.

Respectfully submitted.

JOHN T. HEARD, F. W. LINCOLN, JR.,
R. B. FORBES, GARDNER BREWER.

Office Rooms Board of Trade, Boston, June 1, 1861.

Annual Meeting of the Montreal Board of Trade.

Report of the Council of the Montreal Board of Trade for the year ending March 31, 1861.

The Council, in submitting their report, would beg to refer, as briefly as possible, to some of the various matters which have engaged their attention since the last annual meeting.

The questions of assuming Lake St. Peter debt, and the abolition of

tonnage dues on sea-going vessels so frequently urged by their predecessors, were again brought before the government and Parliament. The Council strongly represented, that the improvement of the river between Quebec and Montreal was a *public* and not a *local* work—that, from the deepening of the channel, a much larger class of ships could now ascend to Montreal from sea, and that in consequence, the rates of freight inwards and outwards since the improvement had been made had gradually decreased, a result in which the producers and consumers of the country were alike interested. The Council are glad to be able to say that the government, by an act of last session, finally abolished all lake and river dues on shipping from sea, coming to Montreal, and assumed as a provincial debt the expense of deepening and improving the river and Lake St. Peter.

A memorial, numerously signed by members of the Board, in reference to a custom which has prevailed at this port, of charging for every package taken to the examining warehouse, was placed before the Council, who, after a careful consideration of all the facts, concurred in opinion that the practice (which does not prevail at other ports) should be abolished.

A memorial to this effect was forwarded to the finance minister, but no action has yet been taken thereon, and the Council would invite the attention of their successors to this matter.

A bill having been introduced into Parliament, providing for a change in the law respecting the pilotage of vessels below Quebec, the Council, assisted by the Quebec Board of Trade, successfully opposed its obnoxious provisions. The Council, however, regret that notwithstanding their earnest representations to the government, on the necessity of a change being made in the system by which the pilots between Quebec and Montreal are now paid on the tonnage of the ship instead of by the draft of water, no notice whatever has been taken of the subject. The efforts made by the Trinity Board and the Harbor Commissioners have been attended with no better result. It must be remembered, that until a new system of remuneration shall compel pilots to become thoroughly acquainted with the new channel and improvements, the advantage of the large outlay on these works is to a great extent lost.

From various facts brought before the attention of the Council, it is apparent that the returns of produce received by canal and river have been most imperfect; and the Council have urged on the commissioner of customs the necessity of obliging all vessels descending the river or canal, filing a duplicate manifest of all cargo at the canal office.

The serious losses and inconvenience which resulted from the robbery of Canadian mails *en route* to the United States, induced the Council to open a correspondence with the post-office department, and to make some suggestions in reference to the future safe conduct of this most important service. They have also lately addressed the Postmaster-General on the subject of forwarding mails for New-York and Boston by the night express trains recently established, who concurred in opinion with the Council, that a great advantage would thereby be secured to the mercantile community; that he had entered into correspondence with the Postmaster-General of the United States on the subject, and that no effort of his would be wanting to carry out the proposed arrangement.

The advantages which resulted from the construction of the Grand

Trunk Railway and from the Victoria Bridge to the commerce of the province, and particularly to the trade of Montreal, are annually made more apparent; and the import trade in dry goods, hardware and groceries have advantages from the railway for distribution of goods to all points that must more and more tend to make Montreal a place where stocks can be most profitably held. The Council, however, deem it their duty to notice the business arrangements of the company, under which produce and other property is carried from distant points in the United States to this place and to Portland at cheaper *pro rata* rates than the same produce and property is carried from one point in Canada to another. The Parliament, in granting the company an act of incorporation, no doubt intended that the produce of the people of Canada should at all times be carried at the same mileage as the produce or property of strangers. Whatever may be the rates which the Grand Trunk Company deem it necessary to charge for any service performed, let that charge be uniform, and paid by all its customers alike. Nor is it only from the cheaper rates at which produce is carried from foreign states that Canada trade suffers, for such has been the amount of the foreign freight on the road that the company have been unable to do even a small portion of the local produce trade.

Although the efforts made last year by the Council of the Board in conjunction with the corporation of the city, the Grand Trunk Company and Harbor Commissioners were successful as to deciding on the best site for a passenger and local freight station for the Grand Trunk Company, nothing has yet been done in their construction. This is much to be regretted, as it is difficult to estimate the loss to the company and to the trade of the city, arising out of the present means of transacting business at Point St. Charles.

The Board being represented in the Harbor Commission, it is proper to state here, that the commissioners are pushing forward to completion the twenty feet channel at lowest water and lowest tide between this city and Quebec, and it is expected the same will be finished in 1863. In the harbor a channel from the foot of the Lachine Canal to opposite St. Helen's Island, of 300 feet wide and twenty feet deep at low water, is rapidly progressing and will probably be completed in 1863. A new wharf and basin, specially adapted for and capable of berthing three ocean steamers, is completed. Several deep water-berths for sailing vessels have been obtained by dredging below the island wharf, and a contract has been given out by the commissioners for the construction of a new wharf running down from the end of the Victoria Pier. This wharf will be made accessible to vessels drawing twenty feet at lowest water, and will accommodate about ten large ships. Extensive as these improvements may appear, the Council are of opinion that the increase of the trade of the port warrants their construction, and there can be no question that far greater outlay must yet be made, and important additional facilities be created, before all the advantages possessed by Montreal, as a receiving and distributing point, can be made apparent.

The Council regret that no adequate measures have yet been adopted by government to enable the St. Lawrence route from the upper lakes to compete in cheapness with the route through the Erie Canal to New-York and the New-England States. The means by which this desirable result might be accomplished have, since 1848, been constantly urged by

this Board on the attention of the government, but hitherto without effect, and when it is considered that with our canals and railways completed, we fail to attract more than *seven per cent.* of the trade of Western Canada and the Western States down the St. Lawrence, and that ninety-three per cent. of that interior trade flows through the canals and over the rail-roads of New-York, such a statement ought to command the attention of the country. Although the receipts at Montreal of flour, wheat, peas, corn, barley and oats have increased from equal to 3,793,907 bushels in 1859, to 6,558,245 in 1860; yet at New-York, equal to 52,787,190 bushels were received in 1860, against 28,224,340 in 1859, showing a larger proportionate increase, and indicating the magnitude of that business we have the opportunity to share.

In view of these facts the Council are of opinion that without an enlargement of the Welland Canal, and the construction of a canal into Lake Champlain, as so often urged by the Board, the trade of Western Canada and the Western States must continue to flow as now through American channels, leaving our Canadian canals and railways comparatively deserted, and consequently unremunerative, while the interest in the capital invested in these public works has to be paid by excessive duties on imports. The Council refer to this important matter because they desire to express their decided belief, that with the navigation improved and perfected, and the facilities for water power at Montreal developed, this port would control an enormous trade in western produce as the most advantageous point for distribution, with reference to either home consumption or foreign demand, while the cheap return tonnage furnished would greatly benefit the St. Lawrence as a competing route for imports to the Western States.

The subject of a bankrupt law will probably engage the attention of the legislature at its present sitting, and this important question should at once receive the attention of the Board. The Council are, however, strongly of opinion that any such act should apply to both sections of the province; that it should be very simple in its provisions, defining clearly what are acts of insolvency, affording speedy and inexpensive means for creditors becoming possessed of the debtors' effects; and while protecting the honest, should provide means of signally punishing the fraudulent trader. Numerously signed memorials having been presented to the Council, asking for certain alterations of the constitution, and for an improvement in the efficiency of the Board of Arbitration, the matter was placed in the hands of a committee, who reported in favor of a new by-law extending the period of voting for office-bearers and making other suggestions which were prepared to be laid before the last quarterly meeting, but which, in consequence of there being no quorum, must now be laid before the annual meeting.

The retiring Council recommend to their successors' attention the question of securing inspection of grain at this port, and they would also urge the importance of a Port Warden's office being created, whose duties would be the survey of vessels in loading and discharging, under such regulations as might be found in the custom of other ports; there can be no doubt that rates of insurance by the St. Lawrence might be thereby considerably reduced.

JOHN YOUNG, *President.*

Montreal, 23d March, 1861.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

NEW LIGHTS ESTABLISHED.

I. Surinam River. II. Turk's Island. III. Fixed Red Light at Katakolo, (west coast of the Morea.) IV. Aucanada Island, (east coast of Majorca.) V. Coruna, (Spain.)

The following information is communicated through the Light-House Board at Washington for the information of merchants:

1. *Light-Vessel off mouth of Surinam River.*—Official information has been received, through the Department of State, that the light-ship moored off the mouth of Surinam River is to be anchored in a different position on the first of April, 1861, as follows: In place of being anchored outside of the buoys, (there being three,) it is to be placed at the second, in sixteen feet water, low tide, Bram's Point bearing south 46° east. The burnt bush, south 81° east. The outer buoy, north ¼° west.

The light is white, and can be seen about eight miles in clear weather.

According to former advice, vessels making land to the windward, in the night, will do well to anchor till daylight.

2. *Light-House at Turk's Island.*—Official information has been received, through the Department of State, that a light-house has been erected on the north point of Grand Turk Island, showing a white light, revolving every 27 seconds, with a continued dim light between intervals of the strong flashes.

The tower is 60 feet in height, painted white, and is situated 400 yards S. 50° W. of the extremity of the point, with a focal plane elevated 110 feet above the mean level of the sea.

The position of the light is, latitude 21° 32′ north. Longitude 71° 7′ 40″ west.

The light is visible from all points, except where it is eclipsed by the Cays lying to the southward of the Grand Turk. The fixed part of the light will, under favorable conditions of atmosphere, be visible from a height of 10 feet above the level of the sea at a distance of 7 nautical miles, whilst the flash will be visible 15 nautical miles.

Directions.—Vessels running for the Turk's Island passage from the northward must endeavor to make the light on a bearing to the westward of south, as its range does not extend sufficiently far to guard against the dangers lying off Cape Comete, East Caicos.

A reef runs off from the north point of Grand Turk. Its extreme bears from the light N. E., (magnetic,) distant three miles, and from thence extends southerly, and runs parallel with the east side of the Cay at the distance of two miles; and, consequently, vessels, on making the light between the bearings of S. W. and W. should (if intending to take the Turk's Island passage) be careful to avoid that danger.

On the bearing of south the light may be safely approached to within two miles, and have the passage open. This light cannot be seen from the dangers at the southern entrance of Turk's Island passage.

MEDITERRANEAN—WEST COAST OF MOREA.

3. *Fixed Red Light at Katakolo.*—Official information has been received, that on and after the 6th day of February, 1861, a light would be exhibited from the extremity of the jetty in the course of construction at the port of Katakolo, situated in the bay of that name, on the east side of Cape Katakolo, on west coast of the Morea.

The light is a *fixed red* light, placed at an elevation of 33 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen in clear weather, from the deck of a ship, at a distance of four miles.

The light-house is of skeleton wood-work, at the end of the jetty, and at 240 yards from the shore. Its approximate position is given in lat. 37° 41′ 30″ N., long. 21° 24′ 9″ E., or by the admiralty charts, in 37° 39′ 10″ N., long. 21° 20′ 50″ east of Greenwich.

MAJORCA, EAST COAST.

4. *Fixed Light on Aucanada Island.*—Official information has been received, that on and after the 15th day of May, 1861, a light will be exhibited from a light-house recently erected on the east and highest part of the island of Aucanada, in Alcudia Bay, east coast of Majorca.

The light will be a *fixed white* light, placed at an elevation of 77 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen in clear weather, from the deck of a ship, at a distance of nine miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses, of the sixth order.

The tower is circular, 49 feet high, painted white, and surmounted by a white lantern. It rises from the centre of the keeper's dwelling, and its position is in lat. 39° 49′ 50″ N., long. 3° 12′ 24″ east of Greenwich.

ATLANTIC—SPAIN, NORTH COAST.

5. *Fixed Light at Coruna.*—Official information has been received, that on and after the 15th day of May, 1861, a light will be exhibited from a tower recently erected on the platform of the castle of St. Antonio, at the north side of the entrance to Coruna.

The light will be a *white fixed* light, placed at an elevation of 56 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen in clear weather, from the deck of a ship, at a distance of ten miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses, of the fifth order.

The tower is twenty feet high, painted green, and surmounted with a white lantern. It rises from the centre of the keeper's dwelling, which is also painted green, and stands in lat. 43° 22′ N., long. 8° 23′ 6″ west of Greenwich.

Position of the Cartaya Light-house.—Also, that the position of the light at Cartaya, on the left bank at the entrance of the river of Las Piedras, on the southwest coast of Andalucia, should be lat. 37° 11′ 50″ N., long. 7° 1′ 6″ west of Greenwich.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

TRANSPORTATION IN BOND TO CERTAIN PORTS DISCONTINUED.

The control of the warehouses of the government in the several States of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Florida and Texas, having been usurped under the alleged authority of those States, and the officers of the customs acting under the authority of the United States having been forcibly excluded from their proper functions in the custody of merchandise and superintendence of the entries for warehousing and withdrawal, it has become impracticable to continue the privilege of bonding for transportation to those ports.

Collectors of the customs are accordingly hereby instructed that no entries for transportation in bond to those ports can be permitted until otherwise directed by this department.

In the case of merchandise entered for transportation before the receipt by collectors of these instructions, transportation bonds to the ports of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Florida and Texas, will be cancelled on payment of the duties at the collector's office at the port from which the goods were shipped, on the collector being satisfied, by the affidavit of the party, to be filed with the bond, that the merchandise arrived at the port of destination *after* the United States officers at such port had ceased to issue the lawful cancelling certificate.

CUSTOMS REGULATIONS IN BRAZIL.

The London *Times* contains the following communication regarding the recent customs regulations adopted by the Brazilian government:

"Sir,—With reference to the obstructive policy on the part of the Brazilian government about the clearances of vessels, I supply you with particulars of its retrograde operation. The first vessel has just been cleared, after ten days' tedious and continuous labor of nearly the entire staff of an office. It is no great figure of speech to say that acres of paper are required to clear a vessel. The vessel in question is a small craft, and, among other portions of her cargo, has about twenty tons of iron on board, which contain probably about five hundred bars in the whole. Now, the weight of every bar must be specified. This might have done very well in the olden times of Portuguese corruption, when 'rattage' was charged in every account of sale, not excepted from iron and braziers' copper. The bills of lading are covered with figures and writing, and how or where to endorse one nobody can tell. The manifest is nearly fifty feet in length, and three copies have to be made out before the vessel can be cleared. The paper alone for the documents, exclusive of the bills of lading, actually cost 10*s*. Hitherto the conduct of the Brazilian government has been one of enlightenment and progress, and this sudden and unaccountable move of 'backwardation' has astonished and confounded all her best friends. Among other foolish and other impolitic measures is the imposition of an export duty on coffee, under the absurd

notion that it will come out of the foreigner's pocket instead of the planter's. If Brazil were the only coffee-producing country, then it would come out of the foreigner's, and ultimately out of the consumer's pocket; but inasmuch as Brazil is only one out of many coffee-producing countries which compete with her in foreign markets, it is clear it must be a tax on the Brazilian farmer, and cripple his means of competition with other countries producing the article."

A meeting of merchants and brokers connected with the Brazilian trade was recently held at the Cotton Sales-room, Liverpool, for the purpose of considering the propriety of memorializing the Brazilian government on the subject of the vexatious detail in ships' manifests required under the Brazilian tariff. Mr. W. C. MILLER occupied the chair, and eventually a committee was appointed to consider the advisability of appealing directly to the Brazilian Minister, or through the Chamber of Commerce, or both conjointly.

TRADE OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE.

It is understood that the new commercial treaties between Turkey on the one part, and England and France on the other, came into operation on the 13th of March. The change is likely to prove highly beneficial, and all countries will equally participate in its advantages. Under the commercial treaty of 1838 the import duties were fixed at five per cent., and the export duties at twelve per cent. By the present treaty, which is for twenty-eight years, with right of revisal in ten years, both the export and import duties are to be placed, in the first instance, at a uniform rate of eight per cent. *ad valorem*, but with the condition that the export duties shall be reduced one per cent. annually for seven years, when they will be brought down to one per cent., which will then be permanent. This will clear the way for a vast and steady augmentation of trade, since the advance of the import duties from five to eight per cent., which is considered absolutely necessary to provide for the revenue of the country, will not, it is believed, even for the moment, have any appreciable effect in checking the consumption of foreign manufacturers; while the reduction of the export duties gradually, to a point at which they will be merely nominal, will enable buyers to obtain much larger supplies of produce, the profits from which will lead the Turkish agriculturist to become, in a proportionate degree, a better customer in distant markets. Already the exports of Great Britain to Turkey are of an amount nearly equal to those of France, and far superior to those of Russia, the total last year being £4,408,000; while France, even under the operation of the new treaty, did not take more than £5,249,000, and the amount to Russia was only £3,267,000.

With regard to the prospect of reforms in the interior fiscal administration of Turkey, it appears from recent advices that the government has given assurances that a commencement shall at once be made—a project for the formation of a company to promote the growth of cotton in Asia Minor, in the district opened up by the Smyrna and Aidin Railway, having been entered into on that understanding.

The new treaty embraces all parts of the Sultan's dominions, including Egypt and the Danubian Principalities.

THE FRENCH FISHERIES.

The *Moniteur* contains a long report to the Emperor from M. Coste, of the Institute, "On the Organization of Fisheries, as regards the increase of the naval force of France." He begins by stating that the production of oysters on the plan recommended by him, has taken such a prodigious development, that in the Ile de Ré alone, more than 3,000 men, who have come from the interior, have already established 1,500 parks, which produce annually about 378,000,000 oysters, of the value of 6,000,000f. to 8,000,000f. These men have also formed themselves into associations for the defence of their common interests. Those associations and others like them, which could be formed on different parts of the coast, might, instead of confining themselves to the production of oysters, establish parks for the production of soles, ray, turbot, lobsters, crabs, &c. But the formation of the parks would not only cost considerable sums, but would necessitate the employment of vessels in which the men could go out to sea to fish; and that course again would necessitate further outlay. As the men have not the funds to do all this, M. Coste suggests that advances shall be made to them by what are called the Maritime Caisses de Retraites, subject to the condition of their paying back three per cent. per month of the produce of their fishing, in addition to the three per cent. which they are already bound to pay to the said Caisses, in order to obtain relief in sickness or in old age. He adds, that such a payment would not be in any way burdensome to them, and would besides in time make them proprietors of vessels, parks, &c., paid for by the means of the advances. As several millions are granted annually for the encouragement of the Newfoundland fisheries, M. Coste submits that there is nothing unreasonable in what he proposes, and he affirms that, if his suggestion be acted on, a vast increase would be made to the maritime population, which augmentation would naturally strengthen the Imperial navy. He likewise observes that the fishing associations which he wishes to see established would not only provide a large and constant supply of fish for the inland towns, and thereby create an important branch of trade, but might lead to obtaining fish, insects and plants in great quantities for manure.—*London Times.*

TRADE WITH JAPAN.

The following communication has been received by the Manchester Chamber of Commerce from the Board of Trade:—Office of Committee of Privy Council for Trade, Whitehall, 8th April, 1861. Sir,—I am directed by the Lords of the Committee of Privy Council for Trade, to request that you will inform the Committee of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce that they have received, through the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, a copy of a despatch from Her Majesty's Minister in Japan, together with enclosures, consisting of a report, with patterns, chiefly of woven fabrics in cotton, specifying articles of this description suitable for the Japanese markets. The report and specimens may be inspected on application at this office.

I am, Sir, your obedient servant, J. Em. Tennent.

The Secretary of Chamber of Commerce, Manchester.

GREAT BRITAIN AND THE AMERICAN WAR.

The following proclamation, dated May 13, 1861, has been issued:

VICTORIA I.—Whereas, we are happily at peace with all Sovereigns, Powers and States, and whereas, hostilities have unhappily commenced between the government of the United States of America and certain States styling themselves the Confederate States of America, and whereas, we, being at peace with the government of the United States, have declared our royal determination to maintain a strict and impartial neutrality in the contest between the said contending parties: we, therefore, have thought fit, by and with the advice of our Privy Council, to issue this our royal proclamation. [The provisions of the Foreign Enlistment Act are here cited.] And we do hereby warn all our loving subjects, and all persons whatsoever entitled to our protection, that if any of them shall presume, in contempt of this our royal proclamation and of our high displeasure, to do any acts in derogation of their duty as subjects of a neutral sovereign in the said contest, or in violation or in contravention of the law of nations, as for example, more especially, by entering into the military service of either of the said contending parties as commissioned or non-commissioned officers or soldiers; or by serving as officers, sailors or marines on board any ship or vessel of war or transport of or in the service of either of the said contending parties; or by serving as officers, sailors or marines on board any privateer bearing letters of marque of or from either of the said contending parties; or by engaging to go or going to any place beyond the seas with intent to enlist or engage in any such services; or by procuring, or attempting to procure within her majesty's dominions, at home or abroad, otherwise to do so; or by fitting out, arming or equiping any ship or vessel to be employed as a ship of war or privateer or transport by either of the said contending parties; or by breaking or endeavoring to break any blockade lawfully and actually established by or on behalf of either of the said contending parties; or by carrying officers, soldiers, despatches, arms, military stores or materials, or any article or articles considered and deemed to be contraband of war, according to the law or modern usage of nations, for the use or service of either of the said contending parties. All persons so offending will incur and be liable to the several penalties and penal consequences by the said statute or by the law of nations in that behalf imposed and decreed.

And we do hereby declare, that all our subjects and persons entitled to our protection, who may misconduct themselves in the premises, will do so at their peril and of their own wrong, and that they will in nowise obtain any protection from us against any liabilities or penal consequences, but will, on the contrary, incur our high displeasure by such misconduct.

THE DUTY ON COFFEE.

BOSTON, *June 13th*, 1861.

To the Editors of the Merchants' Magazine:

AGREEABLY to your request, at the time of our conversation about the effect of a duty on coffee, and the revenue to be derived therefrom, I now give you my views in writing, and more in detail, in relation to the same. The first and most important point to consider is, I think, the rate of duty that will give the *most* revenue at the least cost to the consumer and the country.

In order to come at this, we have next to consider the extent of consumption and the effect of price upon it. We have found the past year of 1860, that the range of prices for good and best qualities of Rio coffee, if 12 @ 14½ cents per lb., say is 15 @ 20 per cent. above the average of the two or three previous years, has not decreased consumption to the extent of the rise in price against an average sale or consumption, as commonly estimated, for several years previous, of 220,000,000 @ 225,000,000 lbs. per year. We have sold, last year, about 190,000,000 lbs. from first hands. The stock remaining in second and consumers' hands, however, at the end of the year, being much smaller than usual, it follows that the actual consumption was more than 190,000,000 lbs. It is fair to assume, therefore, that, with a necessity for higher prices in the shape of a duty, and when once familiar with it, 14 @ 16 cents even would not check consumption beyond 10 @ 15 per cent. probably, if that, after the first year, which might, from obvious reasons, be more, especially as the first effect of a duty would be to raise the price more, probably, than it would rule at after supplies came regularly again from abroad. Looking at the ruling prices in Rio for the past few years, and in other producing countries, it is nearly certain, from past experience of the effect of duty on the cost in producing countries, that 5 cents duty could be borne without raising the price of Rio coffee here to over 14 @ 16 cents for good and best qualities, for an average of several years, and probably less.

You will see by this that I assume that the producing country will pay one-third to one-half the duty, which has usually been found to be the case with any considerable duty, not to say invariably; and it is but reasonable and necessary that it should be so, more or less, as a little consideration will prove, viz.: The effect of duty is to check importations, and also consumption. This reduces the demand and competition to buy in the producing country, and thus reduces the cost. I think it is quite clear, therefore, that we should in all probability have coffee at not over 2½ or 3 cents per lb. additional cost to the country, with a duty of 5 cents per lb., taking an average of several years together. The present duty in Great Britain is 3 @ 6 cents per lb., which is less than formerly, and, compared with tea, a low duty, as tea pays 1s. 5d., or 33 to 34 cents per lb.

The duty of 5 cents on coffee, I judge, would give nearly as much revenue as any higher duty at present, unless, from increase of growth

or abundant crops, the price should fall so low as to bear a higher duty equally well. A lower rate of duty, as it would effect consumption less, and offer less check to free importations, would, I conceive, be borne in a larger proportion by the consumer; so that, if the object is the *most* revenue at the *least cost*, about 5 cents, I should judge, at present range of prices, would be nearest right. If a higher rate would give more, it would become onerous to many, or cut off many consumers; whereas, at 2½ @ 3 cents additional cost per lb., as I have assumed, it is very little upon an average consumption of 7 lbs. per head per annum for the total white population of the country. Assuming that the consumption will range from 180,000,000 @ 200,000,000 lbs. per annum for some years, upon an average, which is very safe, I think, a duty of 5 cents will give $9,000,000 to $10,000,000 revenue, at a cost, actually, of about $5,000,000 to $6,000,000 only to the country, probably.

The same facts and reasoning applies to tea, sugar and molasses. The duty on tea, I should suppose, would not be in the same proportion to coffee as the English duty, which is nearly six times that of coffee. The reason for this may be because England consumes very largely of tea, viz., nearly double the number of pounds of tea that she does of coffee, and with a view to obtaining the most revenue; whereas, with us it is exactly opposite—we consume seven to eight times the amount of coffee that we do of tea. The average cost of tea is three to four times that of coffee; and if three times be taken and 15 cents per lb. on tea be fixed upon as the duty, it would be a fair proportion, I should say, and give $4,000,000 @ $4,500,000 revenue, I judge.

The present sugar duty of ¾ c. can be doubled, and not much exceed, if any, the previous duty of 24 per cent. *ad valorem*. Upon these four leading articles we may estimate the revenue as follows, to take a low estimate, in quantities, for the whole country, as it has been:

Coffee,	180,000,000 lbs.	per year, at 5 cents duty per lb.,	$9,000,000
Tea,	30,000,000 "	" " 15 " " "	4,500,000
Sugar,	700,000,000 "	" foreign import, at 1½ cents per lb.,	10,500,000
Molasses,	30,000,000 galls.	" at 4 cents per gall. duty,	1,200,000
			$25,200,000
Present sugar and molasses duty, one-half the above,			5,850,000
			$19,350,000

If my data and reasoning are nearly correct, therefore, about $20,000,000 additional revenue can be easily raised upon these four articles, and at a cost to the country of about two-thirds that amount, the balance being paid by the cheaper cost in producing countries. I should have remarked, that the duty on sugar in England is 12s. to 13s. per cwt. on brown and yellow sugars, or nearly double the rate of 1½ cents per lb. fixed upon above.

This mode of raising money by duties is certainly not only a great saving to the country, compared with direct taxation, which is attended with additional expense in the collection, and objectionable on many accounts, but is especially free from the annoyance and irritation often to individuals, growing out of direct taxation. Yet, as nearly all consume these articles, and more or less according to their means, the amount to each is very small, and equitably distributed. G.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE

OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

LONDON, *May 31st*, 1861.

To the Editors of the Merchants' Magazine:

PUBLIC attention has been intensely directed, during this month, to the struggle unfortunately pending in the United States; and the action of the executive towards either party has been closely watched lest any disagreement might occur on any point. And well may it be so, when we consider how important are the relations of commerce with the United States; how dependent are our manufacturers on the supply of cotton, the first of our raw materials, and how extensive is the American market for British manufactures. The proclamation issued by the British government warning British subjects from taking any part, or receiving any commission from either party, the same being illegal under the Foreign Enlistment Act, has been commented upon, as it seems to acknowledge the belligerent right of the Confederate States to issue letters of marque. But it is scarcely liable to such a construction. It is quite certain that by international law the State alone has power to commission national vessels to assist in carrying on the war; and that unless the privateer assumes for the time a national character, it must be considered as a pirate. Are the Confederate States to be considered as sovereign States or as rebel provinces? It is certainly premature for the British government to express an opinion on the subject, though it has been the policy of this government to recognise any new arrangement as a matter of fact; on the reasons of which it has no business to enter. It is much to be regretted that the United States government did not concur in the declaration of the European powers at the Congress of Paris, in 1856, respecting privateering, though the demand that private property at sea should be respected in war was most just and proper.

The British legislature has been for a considerable time engaged in discussing the Budget, and more especially the policy of abolishing the paper duty. The debate was long and vigorous, but a majority of fifteen saved the government, and the measure is safe. We need not expect this year any untoward stoppages in the House of Lords. Although their right to consider, accept, reject or alter all bills, whether financial or otherwise, is incontestable, and they were glad to exercise such right last year, when the condition of public finances really justified their interposition against the abandonment of a large sum of revenue, there is nothing this year that will in the least countenance such a course, and the bill will pass safely. I send you the bill as it now stands before the House.

The bankruptcy bill, however, which has been remitted to a committee of the House of Lords, has undergone a searching scrutiny, and many of the most important clauses have been struck out. The bill has just been laid before the House, as amended, but is not yet printed to en-

able me to send it to you. What may be the fate of the measure it is difficult to say. The Chambers of Commerce and all public bodies were quite satisfied with it as it was, at least in its main features, and it will depend on the nature of the changes made in it whether it will pass or not this session.

The trade marks bill has passed the House of Lords and is now before the House of Commons. Considerable opposition has, however, been raised to it, principally by those who are in the habit of using the trade marks of other manufacturers to give currency to their own goods. That such a practice must be stopped by making it criminal, is quite clear; and I sincerely hope the government may be strong enough to pass it.

I send you this day several public documents of interest, such as the Statistical Abstract for the United Kingdom, a paper full of commercial information of great value; the correspondence with the United States government respecting the blockade, and the reports on the conveyance of mail between Galway and America. From the last of these documents it appears that the Galway contract is to terminate, but Viscount PALMERSTON stated in Parliament that the British government are not unwilling to encourage the most direct communication between the United Kingdom and America, but any proposal must be founded on open competition.

I send you also a return on the consumption of tea, showing the wonderful increase in the quantity consumed. The committee on the income and property taxes is still sitting. The bill on copyright in works of art has been remitted to a committee. There is a bill before the House of Commons to introduce into Ireland the same summary procedure on bills of exchange as it now exists in England and Wales.

You will have observed that the value of the exports of British produce and manufacture to the United States in the quarter ending 31st March, 1861, was £4,147,019, against £5,886,357 in the similar period in 1860, and £6,271,993 in 1859. A division is now made in the Board of Trade accounts in our exports to the United States, viz.: ports on the Atlantic, northern; ports on the Atlantic, southern; ports on the Pacific.

The total exports in the four months ending 30th April, 1861, amounted to £38,574,462, against £41,834,347 in the similar period in 1860, and £41,851,524 in 1859.

Among the important combinations lately formed to promote the import of cotton from other countries into England, the following will show that secession has defeated its own object, *i. e.*, the supremacy of Southern commerce.

1. The British Cotton Company, Manchester. 2. The Manchester Cotton Company, Manchester; capital $5,000,000; chairman, THOMAS BARZLEY, Esq., M. P. from Manchester. Sphere of operations, India and Australia, &c. 3. The East India Company; capital $1,250,000, London. 4. The Jamaica Cotton Company, London; capital $100,000; chairman, SAMUEL GURNEY, Esq., M. P. 5. The Coventry Cotton Company, Coventry; capital $250,000.

These are among the first results of the alarm now felt as to the cotton supply in England. There are, in addition to these, two societies with wide reach, which will soon tell powerfully upon the question. One is the Cotton Supply Association, of Manchester, which is now actually stimulating cotton production in India, Australia, Africa, the West Indies

and other tropical regions. The other is the African Aid Society, of London, formed to aid American free blacks to emigrate to Africa and the West Indies, where they may engage in the cotton culture. Its object is nearly identical with that of the Colonization Societies, superadding the idea of cotton culture as an immediate work for the free blacks. The chairman is Lord ALFRED S. CHURCHILL, M. P., and its officers comprising Lord CALTHORPE, the Bishop of Sierra Leone, Lord ROLLO, Hon. W. ASHLEY, Admiral SEYMOUR, Sir C. EARDLEY and many other distinguished men.

It has formed branches in Glasgow, Manchester, Birmingham and other towns, and bids fair to greatly aid in ameliorating the condition of the negro race. The friends of that cause embrace many of the leading minds in Great Britain. The determination is to deliver England from dependence upon the South. African cotton can be delivered at Liverpool for 4½d., which is much cheaper than American, and of an average quality. Let the merchants connected with the Southern trade not forget these facts. In any event of this war, secession has opened the eyes of the British, and the South has lost the monopoly of the cotton trade.

Lord JOHN RUSSELL has officially requested the British consuls to stimulate cotton culture throughout the British tropical dominions.

Soon after Mr. CHARLES F. ADAMS, the new American Minister, landed at Liverpool, in May, he was waited upon by the Mayor and by a deputation from the American Chamber of Commerce, who presented to him an address.

In reply his Excellency said: Mr. President and Gentlemen of the American Chamber of Commerce: I heartily accept of your cordial greeting on my arrival in this great city. It is now more than forty years since I left these shores. I was then a boy, and now I am past the age of middle life; but the interval of time has produced far greater changes in the relations between the country I now represent and the kingdom of Great Britain than any I can trace relatively in myself. As I watched the progress of discharging the letter bags from the steamer in which I have just made my passage, and reflected how often the same process is now repeated by means of such admirable nautical despatch, I felt in its full force the ever-increasing magnitude of the commercial relations between the two countries, and the importance of aiding, by every practical method, in developing them to their fullest extent. The progress of your city, gentlemen, manifests the great expansion of the same ideas. Long may it continue, by cultivating the arts of peace, to present the strongest inducements to the preservation of harmony between the nations. I come here desirous only to develop the fraternal relations to which you have been pleased to allude in your address to me. Such I believe to be the wish of the government of the United States, which has sent me, as well as of a very large portion of the people, irrespective of any personal differences that may now unhappily prevail among them. Permit me here to concur with you in the hope and the trust, that time and trial will bring round a better state of feeling there, so that we may all once more unite and co-operate in the blessed work of promoting the prosperity of the civilized world. Not doubting that this would be joyfully hailed by you in your respective useful vocations on this side, I can only pledge to you all my individual efforts to contribute to the same result.

JOURNAL OF AGRICULTURE.

COTTON FLAX OR FIBRILIA.

The objects sought to be attained in producing fibrilia are to bring out a practical substitute for cotton, which may be grown in the northern States, and which will have a tendency to connect and equalize the agricultural with the mechanical and commercial interests of the North.

The principal causes of failure in times past, in bringing forward flax as a cheaper article of manufacture suited to practical and universal use, have been, first—the great labor to the agriculturist in order to maintain a clean and even straw in bundles suitable for breaking. This could only be done by pulling and threshing by hand, and in the process of rotting the flax.

The production of flax for making flax cotton or fibrilia, as well as the manufacture of it into cloth, is conducted upon a much more practical and economical scale. The flax or straw may be cut by a scythe, a mowing machine, or cradled. The seed may be threshed out by any ordinary threshing machine. The rotting process is dispensed with altogether. There are flax mills now in use for breaking and cleaning the straw, which are capable of dressing from two to five tons per day, and even going as high as ten tons in ten hours. The dressing of flax is entirely different from the old method, as well as the manufacture of it into cloth. Machines have been perfected for dressing and preparing flax to be carded and spun on cotton machinery. The foundation is laid, and it is with us, the American people, to exhibit its permanent and practical value to the world.

If any one of your readers will give his name and post-office address, I shall be happy to render him such information as I may be in possession of in connection with this subject.

CHARLES BEACH.

PENN YAN, YATES Co., N. Y., 1861.

In connection with the foregoing, we received a circular stating that in 1848 Mr. BEACH, together with his father and brother, invented and applied for, and took out letters patent for a machine to dress and prepare flax to be spun on cotton machinery. Mr. BEACH constructed a full-sized working machine, with which he dressed ten tons of straw, producing five tons of flax cotton daily, with the aid of one man, and that the lint was in perfect condition. He has waited twelve years for a market for this lint, and would now be glad to know what is its market value, unbleached. Mr. BEACH is confident that if a demand will spring up, making the manufacture as profitable as any other branch of agriculture, the want will be met fully and promptly.—EDS.—*Rural New-Yorker.*

JOURNAL OF LIFE INSURANCE.

WAR RISKS OF LIFE INSURANCE—LETTER FROM ELIZUR WRIGHT.

ELIZUR WRIGHT, Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Insurance Commissioners, having been applied to for information concerning war risks in life insurance policies, makes the following reply.

OFFICE OF THE MASSACHUSETTS INSURANCE COMMISSIONERS,
Boston, April 21, 1861.

My Dear Sir: My opinion, not mathematically a very positive one, as to the proper rate to be charged on northern lives for permission to engage in the military service of the government in the present emergency, was formed some time ago, after a careful consideration of the facts then within my reach, and thus far I have seen no reason to change it.

The military statistics which we have, assuming their accuracy, throw but a feeble and flickering light on the question of military risks. Taking modern wars of first rate European powers along with our own military experience, the extra mortality varies all the way from 0 up to 20 per cent. per annum on the mean force. This extra mortality may be divided into three parts:

First.—The enhancement of ordinary diseases, which varies according to circumstances of commissariat, medical arrangements, climate, fatigue of marches, &c., &c.

Second.—Deaths from casualties in action; the ratio of these to the forces engaged in the service has varied greatly, but not so much as that of the deaths by disease, and it is not nearly so large. In many very important wars it has been less than one per cent.

Third.—The mortality which shows itself after the war, from disease or vicious habits contracted in the service. As to the amount of this, we are left almost entirely to conjecture. It must be considerable for the mass, but would probably not be large for such lives as in times of peace resort to life insurance, and could be guarded against in some measure as to lives seeking insurance now by judicious selection. Men of character may undergo great hardships with even a beneficial effect on their vitality.

Allowing to blind fortune its full share in the government of military matters, it is obvious enough that the ratio of mortality in past wars has depended greatly on the palpable circumstances belonging to each, and that in predicting that which will rule in the present war we must carefully consider the relative position, strength and means of the parties. This war has really no precedent in the history of the world, either among foreign, civil or servile wars.

A government cordially supported by eighteen millions of people, possessed of ample means, inspired with a common enthusiasm, is called on to suppress a rebellion got up, amidst a population of ten millions, more than one-third of whom are slaves, by a small minority of the free population, and entirely in their interest. The country controlled by the conspirators has no navy, small manufactures, little available wealth at home, and no credit abroad. It appears to me, that while the war may cost the insurgents much blood, the government must be sadly deficient in both statesmanship and generalship, if it does not conquer a permanent peace at a very moderate cost of life on its part. Whatever prejudices or predilections may be entertained at the North, a military necessity now dictates that property in slaves, the cause of rebellion, must be sacrificed for the salvation of the country. Such sacrifice involves nothing barbarous, wasteful of life, or beyond the constitutional power of the government at such an emergency.

It will necessarily take place by throwing upon southern soil at two or three commanding points sufficient force to ensure the protection of life, liberty and all other species of property to all the population who will stand by their allegiance to the government, or return to it. The peculiar institution of the South renders it impossible for its extemporized government to concentrate a force sufficient to parry a blow of this sort, and it must necessarily make the best terms it can—among which will doubtless be a stipulation for the extinguishment of that claim of property in man which caused the war.

The Montgomery government, even if it had full time to organize, consolidate and avail itself of all its possible resources, would only be strong for aggressive war on a weak people. If the British government, at the time of our revolution, had had no slaves of its own and only the slave States to subdue, I think the forces it landed on southern soil would have done the work without suffering an extra mortality of more than one per cent. And while our government can have two hundred thousand troops for the arming, I do not believe it need sacrifice one per cent. of its army, or more than the time between this and July 4th, to end the question and seal the perpetuity of the Union.

There has been great danger that the conspiracy would gain some important advantage over our government while it was in a disorganized state; but that is passed. Now, I can liken the war only to that between the enraged bull and the locomotive. The natural brute is sure to get the worst of it, while, with caution and a cow-catcher, the artificial will convert its antagonist into harmless beef with no material damage to itself.

From all these considerations I am inclined to think the chances are in favor of the companies not losing by granting military permits at two per cent. But their position is so strong that I think they can shoulder some loss, and their constituents would cheerfully justify them in doing it. True prudence seems to be just now in over-doing rather than under-doing. The flag must be sustained, or our institutions sink into a common ruin.

Yours truly,

ELIZUR WRIGHT.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

The month of June has been marked with extreme dullness in commercial circles. The failures among dry goods firms, grocers, in the leather trade, hardware trade, &c., within the two months past have been numerous and heavy. The entire cessation of remittances from the seceding States, on account of indebtedness to New-York and other cities, has forced numerous houses, which were previously considered substantial, to suspend payment. Activity has prevailed among those articles in demand for war purposes. Fire-arms, ammunition, ready-made clothing, blankets, heavy shoes, and a few other articles in immediate use for the troops, command good prices and find ready sale. The entries of foreign goods for consumption in May, 1861, were less than one-fifth of May, 1859. We annex the summary for four years:

VALUE OF IMPORTS AT NEW-YORK FROM FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF MAY.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Dutiable for consump.,	$ 6,574,612 ..	$ 15,222,311 ..	$ 10,515,411 ..	$ 2,889,588
Foreign, free,.....	1,928,573 ..	3,462,285 ..	1,845,020 ..	2,730,568
Entered for warehouse,	2,626,978 ..	4,746,614 ..	4,436,600 ..	5,842,313
Specie and bullion,...	324,540 ..	122,436 ..	96,060 ..	3,486,812
Total imports,.....	$ 11,454,703 ..	$ 23,552,646 ..	$ 16,893,091 ..	$ 14,949,281
Withdrawn,.....	2,665,573 ..	1,628,434 ..	2,475,067 ..	1,606,864
Total,.....	$ 14,120,276 ..	$ 25,181,080 ..	$ 19,368,158 ..	$ 16,556,145

Those for May do not vary in their characteristics from those of each month since October last. An importation of specie largely exceeding the export—in fact, reversing the usual course; a large exportation of domestic products, double in value the corresponding month of the two previous years; a diminished importation, of which a large proportion is allowed to remain in bond, in the absence of a market—these are the distinguishing features which have prevailed for seven months. The prospects of a revenue under the present tariff, while Treasury notes are received for duties, are by no means flattering. The revenue for May was lower than for any month since October, 1857, when it was reduced by the panic. The following statement gives the totals for the eleven months of the fiscal year:

EXPORTS, EXCLUSIVE OF SPECIE, FROM NEW-YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR ELEVEN MONTHS, ENDING WITH MAY.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Six months,.....	$ 34,702,441 ..	$ 27,994,834 ..	$ 36,371,058 ..	$ 59,924,431
January,.....	4,689,739 ..	4,114,008 ..	6,022,462 ..	11,148,843
February,.....	4,173,577 ..	3,735,633 ..	6,675,870 ..	10,804,307
March,.....	5,180,860 ..	5,876,001 ..	8,128,754 ..	11,529,592
April,.....	6,099,926 ..	6,774,699 ..	7,375,913 ..	9,697,005
May,.....	4,606,578 ..	5,914,750 ..	6,370,381 ..	11,603,698
Total,.....	$ 59,453,121 ..	$ 54,409,925 ..	$ 70,944,438 ..	$114,702,876
Specie for same time,.	33,727,897 ..	39,342,463 ..	49,265,566 ..	23,616,615
Total exports,.....	$ 93,181,108 ..	$ 93,752,388 ..	$120,200,004 ..	$138,319,491

The exports of domestic produce for the month of May are largely in excess of those of last year, and also exceeding those of any month of the current year. We annex details for four years:

VALUE OF EXPORTS FROM NEW-YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF MAY, 1858—1861.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Domestic produce, ...	$ 4,262,789 ..	$ 5,180,652 ..	$ 5,812,190 ..	$ 10,855,709
Foreign mdse., dutiable,	229,990 ..	426,002 ..	248,270 ..	567,872
do. free, ...	113,799 ..	308,096 ..	309,921 ..	180,114
Total merchandise,..	$ 4,606,578 ..	$ 5,914,750 ..	$ 6,370,381 ..	$ 11,603,695
Specie and bullion,....	1,790,275 ..	11,421,032 ..	5,529,936 ..	128,900
Total exports,.....	$ 6,396,853 ..	$ 17,335,782 ..	$ 11,900,317 ..	$ 11,732,595

The imports for the fiscal year are nominally large, but in reality small. The importations warehoused form a large part of the whole. The following is a summary for four years:

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW-YORK FOR ELEVEN MONTHS, ENDING MAY 31.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Six months,....	$ 109,688,702 ..	$ 91,082,433 ..	$ 116,000,642 ..	$ 120,542,384
January,.....	8,105,719 ..	19,447,962 ..	21,756,273 ..	26,827,411
February,.....	9,209,043 ..	18,848,370 ..	19,356,379 ..	16,341,707
March,.....	11,729,702 ..	20,820,456 ..	23,580,126 ..	18,204,351
April, ...	11,169,025 ..	22,425,629 ..	16,971,358 ..	14,886,393
May, ...	11,454,703 ..	23,552,646 ..	16,893,151 ..	14,949,281
Total 11 mos.,	$ 161,356,894 ..	$ 196,177,486 ..	$ 214,557,929 ..	$ 211,751,527

The cash duties received at the port were, for the first six months of the fiscal year, higher than last year or the previous one, and are second only to the large revenues of 1857. For the month of April the duties were only one-half the average per month; and for May were less than one-third.

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW-YORK.

	1859.	1860.	1861.
Six months, ending Jan. 1,	$ 15,387,618 49 ..	$ 19,322,060 96 ..	$ 17,637,802 21
In January,.....	3,478,471 38 ..	3,899,166 17 ..	2,059,202 33
February,.....	3,328,688 93 ..	3,378,043 28 ..	2,528,736 83
March,.....	3,164,011 25 ..	3,477,545 74 ..	2,489,926 25
April, ...	3,212,060 49 ..	2,444,267 96 ..	1,643,261 99
May, ...	3,014,520 39 ..	2,466,462 76 ..	979,145 00
Total eleven months, ...	$ 31,585,370 93 ..	$ 34,987,546 87 ..	$ 27,338,074 61

It is thought that an additional revenue of twenty-five millions can be secured by duty on four articles, viz.:

Coffee,.....	180,000,000 pounds, ..	5 cents, ..	$ 9,000,000
Tea, ...	30,000,000 " ..	15 " ..	4,500,000
Foreign sugar,.....	700,000,000 " ..	2 " ..	14,000,000
Molasses, ...	30,000,000 gallons, ..	4 " ..	1,200,000

The duties levied on tea from 1816 to 1832 were as follows:

	1816.	1824.	1828.	1832.
Imperial, per lb., ...	50 cents.	50 cents.	50 cents.	Free.
Gunpowder, "	50 "	50 "	50 "	Free.
Hyson, "	40 "	40 "	40 "	Free.
Hyson Skin, "	28 "	28 "	28 "	Free.
Souchong, "	25 "	25 "	25 "	Free.
Bohea, "	12 "	12 "	12 "	Free.

The loans required for the general government form a prominent topic of discourse among merchants in this city. The present market rates for the five and six per cents are lower than for many years. The lowest price in the month of May for the six per cents of 1868 was 80; and the highest, 95. For the five per cents, the range was 75¼ @ 79. Some modifications of the tariff will be necessary in view of the urgent wants of the treasury. Tea, coffee and sugar will probably be taxed. The highest duty yet levied upon coffee was five cents per pound, and on sugar also five cents per pound. On tea the duty has reached fifty cents per pound.

Besides the proposed and probable loans to the general government, the States are in the market for several loans, viz.:

Pennsylvania State five per cent. loan, taken,.....	$3,000,000
Indiana State six per cent. loan, June 22,.....	1,500,000
Illinois State six per cent. loan, June 25,.....	1,000,000
Michigan State seven per cent. loan, repayable 1886,...	500,000
Iowa State seven per cent. loan, repayable 1881,.....	400,000

The exports of breadstuffs to Europe continue large. We annex a summary of the export to Great Britain and Ireland, from September 1, 1860:

From	To	*Bbls. Flour.*	*Bbls. C. Meal.*	*Bush. Wheat.*	*Bush. Corn.*
New-York,	June 14, 1861,	1,401,946 ..	2,532 ..	15,217,625 ..	5,951,478
New-Orleans,	May 31, "	179,427 ..	996 ..	66,767 ..	1,464,267
Philadelphia,	June 6, "	164,562 ..	.... ..	1,214,474 ..	641,709
Baltimore,	" 6, "	126,013 ..	48 ..	937,670 ..	831,007
Boston,	" 7, "	82,117 ..	106 ..	13,032 ..	14,100
Other ports,	May 31, "	118,426 ..	.... ..	2,104,026 ..	15,451
Total,.....		2,072,501 ..	3,682 ..	19,553,594 ..	8,918,012
To about same period,	1860,	321,392 ..	522 ..	1,335,056 ..	1,601,131
" "	1859,	85,813 ..	58 ..	415,800 ..	332,714
" "	1858,	1,027,899 ..	140 ..	5,053,324 ..	3,165,533

To the Continent.	*Bbls. Flour.*	*Bush. Wheat.*	*Bush. Corn.*	*Bush. Rye.*
From New-York, to June 4, 1861,..	43,363 ..	1,077,626 ..	41,023 ..	70,861
From other ports, to latest dates,...	7,792 ..	9,073 ..	3,042 ..	....

From the monthly circular of Messrs. Sawyer, Wallace & Co., of New-York, we extract the following summary of current prices of tobacco, compared with previous years:

Tobacco.	1861.	1860.	1859.	1858.
Planters' lugs,.....	4 @ 5¼ ..	4 @ 4¼ ..	5¼ @ 6 ..	7 @ 7½
Common to medium leaf,	6 @ 9 ..	5 @ 8½ ..	6½ @ 8½ ..	8 @ 10
Good to fine leaf,.....	9 @ 11 ..	9 @ 10 ..	9 @ 11 ..	10½ @ 12
Choice selections,.....	11 @ 13 ..	10½ @ 12 ..	11½ @ 12½ ..	12 @ 13

Monthly Statement of Stock of Tobacco.

	Ky. & Mo.	*Va. & N. C.*	*Ohio.*	*Total Hhds.*
On hand, May 1st, 1861,....	13,709 ..	994 ..	4 ..	4,707
Received since,.....	3,381 ..	223 ..	.. ..	3,604
Delivered since,.....	2,733 ..	69 ..	1 ..	2,803
On hand, June 1st, 1861,....	14,357 ..	1,148 ..	3 ..	15,508

	1861.	1860.	1859.	1858.
Stock in Liverpool, June 1,..	17,140 ..	11,563 ..	10,715 ..	6,937
" in London, May 1,....	18,913 ..	17,311 ..	12,503 ..	8,462
" in Bremen, May 1,....	8,856 ..	7,853 ..	2,655 ..	3,793
" in N. Orleans, May 25,	17,937 ..	29,725 ..	26,481 ..	35,748
" in Baltimore, May 25,..	12,728 ..	18,092 ..	24,521 ..	11,502
" in New-York, June 1,...	15,508 ..	10,869 ..	8,260 ..	6,034
Hogsheads,.....	91,082 ..	95,413 ..	85,135 ..	72,476

THE BOOK TRADE.

1. *Commentaries upon International Law.* By ROBERT PHILLIMORE, M. P., of the College of Advocates and of the Middle Temple. Author of "The Law of Domicil." 3 vols. 8vo. T. & J. W. JOHNSON, Philadelphia.

The subject of International Law has assumed fresh importance in the present year, in consequence of the new complications arising from the attempted secession of the Southern States. The foreign relations of the country are seriously disturbed by the temporary and forcible obstruction of the laws of the general government at the South. The law of blockade, at all times, is one of the most interesting questions which affect the intercourse of maritime nations with each other. It is of peculiar importance at this moment, because it affects the foreign and domestic trade of the United States, and threatens to disturb the harmony hitherto existing between this government and European nations. The question of blockade, and the position assumed by the executive in our commercial intercourse with foreign countries, have given rise to animated debates in the British Parliament. Hence the fresh interest felt in works on International Law.

We have had for some years the elaborate works of Chancellor KENT on American Law; Mr. HENRY WHEATON'S reliable Treatise on International Law; Mr. DANIEL GARDNER'S Elements of American Law; the valuable Commentaries on International Law by President WOOLSEY, of Yale College—all of which claim a place in the public and private libraries of the country. The Commentaries by Mr. PHILLIMORE cover more ground than either of the works named, in reference to the ancient and modern law of international intercourse, rights and obligations. The author is known to scholars as a member of the College of Advocates, and also of the Middle Temple, London; and as the author of a treatise on the Law of Domicil. He says, very truly, that international jurisprudence has received, since the civilization of mankind, and especially since the introduction of Christianity, continued culture and improvement; "and it has slowly acquired, in great measure and on many subjects, the certainty and precision of positive law." The value of Mr. PHILLIMORE'S work is enhanced by a prefatory chapter on the state of International Law before the Christian Era; the Era of GROTIUS; from the Peace of Westphalia, 1648, to the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713; the interval thence to the Treaty of Paris, 1763; thence to the French revolution, 1789; and again, up to the middle of the present century, with an elaborate history of international jurisprudence in England.

He gives a critical review of the writings on international law of ZOUCH, STOWELL, VALIN, DOMAT, POTHIER, VATTEL, GROTIUS, BYNKERSHOEK, PUFFENDORF, HEINECCIUS, LEIBNITZ, WOLFF, STORY, WHEATON and KENT.

The leading chapters of the work are devoted to—I. Foundations of International Jurisprudence. II. Sources of International Law. III. Consent of Nations. IV. Subjects of International Law. V. Objects of International Law. VI. Rights of Independence and Equality. VII. Central America. VIII. Self-Preservation. IX. Free Development of National Resources by Commerce. X. Slaves and Slave Trade. XI. Jurisdiction, Pirates, Extradition. XII. Principle of Intervention, Reprisals, Embargo, War, Neutrals, Colonial and Coasting Trade, Blockade, Contraband, Right of Search, Right of Capture, Tribunals of Prize.

The appendix to the work is very full of documents relating to England, France and Spain, Spanish American Provinces, branches of foreign municipal law, interpretation of treaties, right of sovereigns, embassies, consuls. In fact, no public library, no professional library, would be complete without this elaborate and thorough work of Mr. PHILLIMORE. The references to American decisions and cases add to its high value.

2. *General Index to the English Common Law Reports.* Second Edition. 2 vols. By GEORGE W. BIDDLE and RICHARD C. MCMURTRIE. Philadelphia: T. & J. W. JOHNSON & Co., Publishers.

We are much pleased to see a second edition of this valuable work. The large number of volumes of the American reprint of the "English Common Law Reports,"

issued since the former edition of the Digest, have rendered these volumes extremely necessary. To every one a collection of decisions must be almost a sealed book for all practical purposes, until its pages are opened by means of a carefully prepared index of the points decided. This Digest thus opens to us, and furnishes the means of using, to advantage, the amount of learning contained in these Common Law Reports. We take especial pleasure, therefore, in calling attention to the work, believing this series of reports to be of the greatest value to all who would clearly understand the principles upon which all our laws are based. Even on points where our statutes have changed the common law, it is necessary for us to study English decisions, so that we may know the supposed evil the statute was intended to remedy; for only thus can we appreciate fully the object and effect of the statute.

3. *Annual of Scientific Discovery; or, Year Book of Facts in Science and Art, for* 1861, *exhibiting the most important Discoveries and Improvements in Mechanics, Useful Arts, Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, Astronomy, Geology, Zoology, Botany, Mineralogy, Meteorology, Geography, Antiquities, &c. Together with Notes on the Progress of Science during the year* 1860; *a list of recent Scientific Publications; Obituaries of Eminent Scientific Men, &c.* Edited by DAVID A. WELLS, A. M. 1 vol. 12mo. pp. 424. Boston: GOULD & LINCOLN.

This is the twelfth successive issue of this Annual, each edited by Mr. WELLS, and each published by Messrs. GOULD & LINCOLN. The continued improvement and enlargement of the work from year to year is evidently owing to that increased circulation to which it is every way entitled; and the prosperous result of the enterprise reflects credit upon the ability and sagacity of both author and publishers. This issue is embellished with a portrait of AUGUSTUS A. GOULD, and presents a complete compend of the progress of science during the past year. The style and arrangement of this work are excellent, inviting the business man, as well as student, to an examination and perusal of its pages. The articles are generally short, pithy, relieved of unnecessary technical terms. The divisions of subjects are proportionate; and there is a full index, which is too often omitted from such publications.

4. *A History of the Destruction of His Britannic Majesty's Schooner Gaspee, on Narragansett Bay, on the* 10*th June,* 1772; *accompanied by the Correspondence connected therewith; the Action of the General Assembly of Rhode Island thereon, and the Official Journal of the Proceedings of the Commission of Inquiry, appointed by King* GEORGE *the Third on the same.* By JOHN RUSSELL BARTLETT, Secretary of State. 1861. Imp. 8vo. pp. 140. Providence: A. CRAWFORD GREENE, Printer to the State.

5. *The Works of* FRANCIS BACON, *Baron of Verulam, Viscount St. Albans, and Lord High Chancellor of England.* Collected and edited by JAMES SPEDDING, M. A., Trinity College, Cambridge, ROBERT LESLIE ELLIS, M. A., late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, and DOUGLAS DENON HEATH, Barrister at Law, late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Vol. 15; being Vol. 5 of the Literary and Professional Works. 12mo. pp. 449. BROWN & TAGGARD.

6. *Quarterly Reviews.* Messrs. LEONARD, SCOTT & Co. have promptly republished the *British Quarterly Reviews* for April, 1861.

The *Edinburgh Review*, No. 230. CONTENTS.—I. DIXON'S Personal History of Lord BACON. II. The Republic of Andorre. III. Political Diaries—Lord AUCKLAND and Lord COLCHESTER. IV. Eton College. V. Remains of ALEXIS DE TOCQUEVILLE. VI. Essays and Reviews. VII. Autobiography and Letters of Mrs. PIOZZI. VIII. Fables. IX. FORBES' Iceland. X. Election of President LINCOLN, and its consequences.

7. *The Semi-Attached Couple.* By the Author of "The Semi-Detached House." 1 vol. 12mo. Boston: T. O. H. P. BURNHAM.

One of the best novels we have had for a year. "The Semi-Detached House" was an excellent one, but this is better. The new volume has many characteristics which particularly commend it. Among others it is a scholarly work as regards style and composition; another, it is intensely interesting, without being sensational or improbable; a third, the author's descriptions of English high life are evidently from actual experience and not romantic imagination; and finally, the characters are drawn with the hand of a master, the descriptions in many instances being a keen

and telling satire upon life, society and people we meet at the present day everywhere. As a sketch of English life in the higher classes, it is admirable and correct. As a work of fiction, it is one which can be read with both profit and pleasure.

8. *Considerations on Representative Government.* By JOHN STUART MILL. London: PARKER, SON & BOURN.

9. *Ten Weeks in Japan.* By the Bishop of Victoria, (Hong Kong.) London: LONGMAN, GREEN, LONGMAN & ROBERTS.

10. *Free Trade in Gold; being a reply to the* COBDEN-CHEVALIER *treatise "On the probable fall in the value of Gold," and an Exposition of the French schemes on the Currency now maturing.* RICHARDSON & Co., 23 Cornhill, London.

11. *History of the Shoddy Trade.* Price 1*s.* *Being a lucid statement of every part of that wonderful trade to the present time.* By S. JUBB. London: HOULSTON & WRIGHT. Manchester: J. HEYWOOD.

12. *The Voyage of the Novara round the World.* First volume just ready. *The Circumnavigation of the World, by the Austrian ship Novara.* English edition. Containing an unpublished letter from Baron HUMBOLDT. With 400 wood engravings. Dedicated, by special permission, to Sir RODERICK MURCHISON. London: SAUNDERS, OTLEY & Co., 50 Conduit-street.

RECENT OFFICIAL REPORTS RECEIVED AT THE OFFICE OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

Navy Register for 1861.

Clerks' Manual for the Regulation of Business in the Assembly of the State of New-York. By A. H. STOUTENBURGH.

Copy of Bills introduced into the Legislature of New-York, Session of 1861. By A. H. STOUTENBURGH.

Second Annual Report of the Trustees of the Cooper Union for the Advancement of Science and Art, 1861.

Annual Report of the Baltimore Board of Trade for the year 1860–'61. By GEORGE U. PORTER, Secretary.

Report of the Secretary of the Treasury on Commerce and Navigation of the United States, for the year ending June 30, 1860. By SALMON P. CHASE, Secretary.

COMMERCE OF THE STATE OF NEW-YORK.

Third Annual Report of the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New-York, for the year 1860–'61. 8vo. pp. 340. Prepared by the Secretary, Mr. J. SMITH HOMANS.

This volume is filled with statistical materials of value to all who feel an interest in the commerce of the City and State of New-York. The volume opens with the proceedings of the Chamber for the year 1860, with a list of members at the close of the year, and a list of Presidents, Vice-Presidents, Secretaries and Treasurers from the establishment of the Chamber in 1768 to this date.

Then follow elaborate tables of imports and exports of every article, of the port of New-York and of the United States. 2. Imports and exports of each State, each year, 1856—1860. 3. Real and personal property of the City of New-York, and population, each year, 1826—1860. 4. Comparative population of each County in the State by each census, 1790 to 1860. 5. Commercial treaties of the year with all nations. 6. The harbors and rivers of the United States. 7. Comparative tariffs of 1842, 1846, 1857, 1861. 8. Annual report on the harbor of New-York.

Annual reports, with copious details, on Ashes; Assay Office; Banks, Banking, Savings Banks; Boot, Shoe, Hide and Leather Trade; Breadstuffs and Provisions; California Trade; Canals; China and Tea Trade; Clearing House; Coffee Trade; Cotton; Currants; Dry Goods; Drugs; Emigration; Fire, Life and Marine Insurance; Flour; Freights to Europe, &c.; Fruits; Gold and Silver; Hemp and Jute; Molasses and Sugar; Naval Stores; Rail-Roads of New-York; Rosin; Rice; Salt; Saltpetre; Tallow; Tar; Tobacco; Wines and Liquors; Wool and other subjects.

*** A few extra copies have been printed beyond those wanted for the use of the members. These copies can be had at two dollars each.

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EDITED BY

J. SMITH HOMANS, (SECRETARY OF THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF THE STATE OF NEW-YORK,)

AND WILLIAM B. DANA, ATTORNEY AT LAW.

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AUGUST, 1861.

THE RAIL-ROAD SYSTEM OF MASSACHUSETTS.

I. Wealth of Massachusetts. II. The first Canal and the first Rail-Road. III. Early Rail-Road progress in the Commonwealth. IV. Financial Policy. V. Rail-Road Extension to Albany. VI. The Revulsion of 1857. VII. Horse Rail-Roads. VIII. The Boston and Worcester Rail-Road. IX. The Boston and Lowell Rail-Road. X. The Boston and Providence Rail-Road. XI. The Eastern Rail-Road. XII. The Boston and Maine Rail-Road. XIII. The Fitchburg Rail-Road. XIV. The Fall River Rail-Road. XV. The Boston and New-York Central Rail-Road. XVI. The Western Rail-Road. XVII. The Troy and Greenfield Rail-Road. XVIII. Conclusions.

The Commonwealth of Massachusetts, at the close of the Revolution, was deeply in debt. It had made great sacrifices, both of blood and treasure, and its public debt exceeded the value of its soil, and of all its goods, chattels and other convertible property. Seventy-eight years have elapsed since the close of the war, and energy, skill and frugality, although planted on a rock, and in an area less than one-fourth that of South Carolina, have done their work.

The Commonwealth has extinguished its debt, survived the successive shocks given to its commerce by the French war, the embargoes, the restrictive acts, the loss of the first navy, the second war with England, tariffs and repeals of tariffs, and now exhibits a population of a million and a quarter, actually more than 170 to the square mile, and an amount of wealth assessed by the census of 1860 at $897,000,000.

In this valuation many omissions occur. Little or no account is taken of deposits in savings banks, which now contain fifty millions. At least two hundred dollars in stock and furniture for each family in the State are free from assessment or seizure, and not returned in the valuation. This will amount to fifty millions more.

Nor is anything included in this valuation for the property of the State.

The navy yard, courts, custom-houses and arsenal of the United States.

The schools, colleges, court-houses, vacant land and other property of towns, cities and counties.

The churches and other religious edifices, with the addition of these and the omissions of the assessors, who overlook a large part of the personal property, it would be safe to compute the wealth of the State as exceeding twelve hundred millions of dollars, and averaging one thousand dollars for every person in the Commonwealth.

The railway system has contributed much to this wealth. It has given new value to lands and waterfalls. It has cheapened the movement of materials and products, now estimated at four hundred millions annually. It has furnished new inlets for salt, plaster, coal and breadstuffs.

During the decade from 1840 to 1850, when it expanded most, the valuation of the State rose from three hundred to six hundred millions, and during the last decade, when the expansion was less active, at least two hundred and ninety-seven millions more were added to the aggregate, and Massachusetts to-day exhibits an average of property *per capita* equal to that of Great Britain, enriched by the accumulation of twenty centuries, for her aggregate to-day, for thirty millions of people, is rated by the Edinburgh *Review* at six thousand millions sterling.

This progress, of course, is not to be ascribed to the railway system alone. Nor is it due to the soil or climate, for they allow but few products to be raised. Nor is it due to artificial stimulants in the shape of tariffs, for Massachusetts has adapted herself to all systems, and asks no tariff to-day except such as the nation requires for revenue. Much is doubtless due to the inborn energy of her people and to her system of schools, by which her labor has been educated and her male operatives been enabled to average at least thirty-five dollars per month, while her female operatives have averaged at least sixteen; but one of the most effective pieces of mechanism she has set in motion by her educated labor has been the railway system.

It has superseded canals, stages and teams, adapted itself to the ice and snow of her winters, successfully crossed her ranges of mountains, and, to some extent, superseded her coast navigation.

II. Massachusetts commenced early in the career of improvement, and built the first canal and the first rail-road in the United States. Soon after the Revolution she began the Middlesex Canal, to unite the Merrimac River with Boston. Capital was then limited, but the work was completed before 1808, and when, long afterwards, New-York commenced her Erie Canal, her commissioners came on to Massachusetts to examine the locks of the Middlesex.

The Quincy Rail-Road followed, and upon this the stone for the Bunker Hill Monument was carried, by horse-power, on cars connected by framework, which are supposed to have first suggested the idea of the long passenger-car. This rail-road preceded the Baltimore and Ohio and Albany and Schenectady Rail-Roads, the first passenger line of this country.

III. No material progress, however, was made in railways until 1834, when sections of the Boston and Worcester, Boston and Lowell and Boston and Providence lines were opened, and the locomotive set in motion.

The public are indebted to the *Railway Times*, of Boston, for a series of tables which exhibit the progress of our railway system, and furnish a large amount of valuable data, from which the public may draw many inferences.

It appears by these tables, that in 1842 there were completed in Mas-

sachusetts 431 miles of rail-road, and in the succeeding fourteen years these increased to 1,325, an average growth of fifteen per cent. per annum. Since 1856, the entire growth in Massachusetts has been but forty-six miles, or less than four per cent. per annum. With few exceptions, the whole State has been threaded by rail-roads, and sixty miles more now in progress, or contemplated, will carry them through the Deerfield Valley, and to the extremities of Cape Ann and Cape Cod, and leave but little space for future expansion. There has been, however, and probably will continue to be, a perceptible improvement in the condition of the lines of Massachusetts; and, besides the main lines and branches, more than five hundred and forty miles of second tracks and sidings have been laid down in Massachusetts.

In 1842 the cost of the lines in this State amounted to $19,241,000; in 1860 it had risen more than two hundred per cent.—to $60,107,000. In 1842 rail-roads had received a check, and became comparatively stationary; but in 1845 they received a new impulse, and from that period to 1851 the outlay for construction became large, averaging more than five millions yearly, and rising in the last named year to fourteen millions of dollars.

IV. The outlay continued, on a reduced rate, to 1856, when the cost had risen to sixty-three millions; but from 1856 to 1861 a portion of the income had been applied to reduce construction, and a diminution of nearly three millions in cost has thus been effected, while the equipage and stations have been enlarged, and the tracks extended forty-six miles.

The average net income of the lines appears to have grown from 5.26 per cent. on cost in 1842, until in 1847 it culminated at 7.95 per cent. From this point it gradually declined to 5.68 per cent. in 1855. It is again in the ascendant, having risen from this to 7.10 per cent. in 1860. Upon recurring to the income of the lines, it appears that the gross revenue has risen from $1,971,787 in 1842, to $9,936,391 in 1860; so that, while the length and cost of lines have trebled, the income has increased at least five-fold in the same period. The movement in revenue, although at times irregular, has been constantly progressive. From 1842 to 1845 the passenger revenue increased at an average rate of eight per cent. annually. From 1845 to 1850 it gained 22 per cent. annually; from from 1850 to 1856, 7 per cent.; from 1856 to 1860, 1 per cent. The income from freight has increased more uniformly. From 1842 to 1845 it averaged an annual gain of 22 per cent.; from 1845 to 1852, 15 per cent.; from 1852 to 1860, 10 per cent. And now the income from freight exceeds that from passengers, and defrays seven-eighths of the expenses of maintaining the whole railway service of the State.

The number of passengers transported annually has increased to 12,389,598, and the tons transported to 3,912,379.

Upon referring to the expense account, we find a very slow and gradual rise from 72 cents per mile run in 1842, to 76 cents in 1851; but for the succeeding six years the rate rapidly advanced from 76 cents to $1 10 per mile in 1857, an increase of at least 44 per cent. From 1857 the cost has rapidly declined to 89 cents per mile in 1860; and there is reason to believe, that if tolls and interest, now included in expenses by some of the rail-roads, were omitted, the rate would stand to-day below 83 cents per mile traversed.

These data shed some light upon the history of the past.

V. In 1843 the revival of business under the new tariff, the extension of the Western Rail-Road to Albany, and a reduction on railway charges, gave a new impulse to the system. Many lines were commenced, and much capital took this direction. Large returns of net income in 1847, when the Irish famine gave another impulse to travel and business, drew more capital into railways, and a rapid expansion followed.

The check given to manufactures by the tariff of 1846, which threw burthens on the raw material, drew still more capital into railways, and for one or two years Massachusetts devoted, at home and abroad, at least twenty to thirty millions annually to rail-roads.

With the discovery of gold in California and the expansion of rail-roads in other States, there came an increased demand for capital and artisans; interest and wages advanced; competition arose; renovation became necessary; expenses increased, and heavy losses and sacrifices followed.

VI. The net income declined, and the value of stocks depreciated as a necessary consequence.

This decline, and the shock given by 1857 to credit and to enterprise, again reduced prices and taught economy. The number and speed of trains were reduced; supernumeraries were discharged; materials and wages fell; coal was substituted for wood, with great advantage; debts were funded, and income applied to the reduction of indebtedness.

As cost was thus diminished, the natural growth of business, which has attended rail-roads in every country, aided by a diminution of expense, has promoted recovery; stocks have again risen from their depression. They are fast recovering the confidence of the public, and are again considered a safe and remunerative class of investments.

Some effects have followed the growth of railways in Massachusetts which deserve the attention of the political economist:

First.—They have superseded three important canals, which were once in active use, the Middlesex, the Hampshire and Hampden, and the Blackstone, with a series of works on the Connecticut and Merrimac. Cheap and rapid transit on lines which crossed both rivers and mountains and bid defiance to winter's ice and snow, diverted the traffic from the slow canal with its wearisome lockage, ice-bound half the year. Canals are now abandoned in Massachusetts.

Second.—They have greatly stimulated the growth of cities and villages, attracting population and manufactures to the line of the iron way. The growth of population in Massachusetts, still more than two per cent. annually, is confined to cities and villages. Some of the inferior farms have been devoted to the production of fuel, in many places worth $3 per cord as it stands, although other farms are more highly cultivated.

Third.—The freight has grown with more rapidity than the passenger traffic. In 1842 it furnished but one-third the revenue; now it supplies more than half, and still continues to gain upon passengers. Much of this freight may be regarded as the creation of the railway. Masses of ice, coal and timber are thus set in motion, and made tributary to commerce and useful to the world.

Fourth.—The State is able, by its railway system, to convene its people, to concentrate its whole military force upon a single point and in a single day, upon a few hours' notice. The votes of two hundred

thousand citizens are announced the morning after the polls are closed. Immense bodies are collected on festive days, and in the event of any attack upon the State, this power of rapid concentration and action will be most effective for the common defence.

Fifth.—The effects of high and low prices have been effectually tested. The charge for passengers has ranged from 4½ to 2 cents per mile, upon various lines and at various periods. Competition, experiment and success have reduced prices to the lower standard, and with the growth of expenses and in periods of depression they have again advanced.

Low prices increased numbers, stimulated building and promoted the growth of traffic, while they have awakened the jealousy of stockholders engaged in trade, who usually look to the advance of prices as the sure road to wealth.

The result has been, that the public mind is settling down upon the rate of 2 to 3 cents per passenger a mile for the long traffic, and 2 cents per mile for the short traffic, with a charge for season tickets equivalent to 1 or 1½ cents a mile for each passage.

The freight is allowed to vary according to value, quantity, distance and gradients, from 1½ to 8 cents per mile.

Sixth.—The rail-roads of Massachusetts have gradually reduced their debt until it now constitutes less than one-fourth of the capital of our companies, and their policy seems to be to effect its extinguishment. Out of debt, out of danger, is the lesson taught them by experience. Of late years they have reserved nearly a fourth of their income for reduction of debt and improvements, and now hold nearly six millions in surplus and sinking funds.

Seventh.—Another effect has attended the growth of rail-roads and their extension through the streets of cities, viz., the introduction of an admirable system of horse railways—a minor edition of the rail-road itself.

VII. During the year 1860, fifty-seven miles of horse railways have been in operation in Massachusetts, and by the close of the year two of them were extended from Boston to Lynn, on lines ten to eleven miles in length; and during 1860, 13,695,000 passengers (actually more than on the steam roads) were transported upon the horse railways of Massachusetts, at an average charge of about 2 cents per mile.

The cost of these lines is now reported as close upon three millions; their net revenue is 9 per cent., and the cost of conducting them is rated at 20 cents in the cities and 15 cents in the country for each mile run by the two-horse cars, which transport usually not far from an average of fifteen passengers. The cost of transportation is thus apparently 1 to 1½ cents per passenger a mile, and where passengers abound, a charge of two cents per mile is found amply remunerative.

Although the cost of these lines has been greatly enhanced by experiments and by a process known as watering the stock, viz., by issues at a fictitious cost, it is now generally understood that a horse railway can be made of good quality, at a cost of $5,000 per mile on country roads, and $10,000 to $15,000 per mile in cities, exclusive of the equipage, stables and changes of grade.

We have thus glanced at the general system of the State, its progress,

its trials and its effects. To appreciate it better, it is desirable to examine some of the leading rail-roads of Massachusetts.

VIII. *The Boston and Worcester Rail-Road.*—This road is one of the pioneer lines of the State. In the early spring of 1834, the first section of ten miles was opened for use, and on the morning of the first of May the locomotive was set in motion. There was no bonnet upon the engine, and a large party of ladies, with their beaus, enlivened by a host of sparks, made their first excursion by steam from Boston into the country.

This line commenced with very limited means; and having no direct natural valley to follow, a devious route was pursued, conforming closely to the surface, with a ruling gradient of thirty feet to the mile, and a narrow location was adopted. A light edge rail, weighing less than forty pounds to the yard, was introduced and laid, principally upon ties of white cedar embedded in the primitive soil, and little space was allowed for drainage.

The company were induced, by a grant of several acres of land, at a nominal price, to establish their Boston station upon the South Cove; but in the provision of land and buildings, the growth of business was greatly underrated. The provision for freight consisted of an open yard, with a small wharf, store and freight-house, which would not receive at once more than two or three long cars.

From 1834 to 1840, the whole capital raised was but $1,840,000.

The equipage of the line consisted, for several years, of a few light engines and single cars, for both freight and passengers, some of which were imported from England. Worcester was then a village with four or five thousand people, whose trade sought the New-York and Providence markets by the Blackstone Canal. It offered so little merchandise, that for some time the average freight from Worcester to Boston did not exceed twelve tons per train. Until the close of 1839, the line drew a very moderate income from its light local traffic. Its rails were injured, its tracks disturbed by frost, its cars and engines worn out by use or gone out of fashion, and its dépôts unsuited to the day. Its charges had been as high as 4½ cents per passenger a mile, and its rate for freight up to 7 to 8 cents per ton a mile, from which rates it with difficulty paid a moderate dividend, and accidents frequently occurred, from the deterioration of its tracks and engines.

But in 1839 the Norwich and Worcester and the Western Rail-Roads were opened, from tide-water at Norwich and the navigable waters of the Connecticut at Springfield, into Worcester, and a new impulse was given to the Boston and Worcester line. An investigating committee, in 1846, reported its defects, and suggested some of the remedies to the stockholders, and prompt measures were taken for its renovation. The capital was rapidly increased, by stock and bonds, from $1,840,000 to $5,500,000, three times the original amount; the road-bed was raised, widened and graveled, new rails were provided, a second track laid, branches opened, and superior engines and long cars purchased. Several acres of land were obtained, at high prices, and extensive dépôts and engine-houses erected, and the revenue rapidly increased, and the dividends soon rose to eight per cent. per annum.

For a time the directors adhered to their system of high prices, and induced the Western Railway to charge $6 50 per ton and $3 75 per

passenger between Boston and Springfield, and business was thus for a time repelled; and when the Western Rail-Road adopted rates very nearly the same as those now established, the Boston and Worcester line declined to take a *pro rata* share, and commissioners were called in to adjust the difference; but gradually moderate rates were established, special trains, with season tickets and low fares, were set in motion, and now the Boston and Worcester Rail-Road exhibits a line fringed with villages, villas and suburban residences, and has raised its revenue from $210,000 in 1837 to more than a million in 1860. It has, doubtless, in the past, shown some want of prescience. It has made more branches than are profitable; the renovation of its tracks and road-bed, and the acquisition of land after use have enhanced its value, and doubtless carried its capital to an unnecessary height; but in the past ten years its cost has been reduced from income more than half a million. It divides eight per cent., and it is now conducted, by its present officers, with a degree of promptitude, efficiency and success alike acceptable to the public and the shareholders.

IX. *The Boston and Lowell Rail-Road.*—This line, from Boston to Lowell, twenty-five miles, was constructed at the same time with the Boston and Worcester, and considered a very bold experiment, as it run nearly parallel with the Middlesex Canal. Its engineer aimed at a level route, and its gradients, except for a few feet near its Lowell terminus, did not exceed ten feet to the mile, and heavy expenses in cuts and embankments were incurred to secure this gradient and curves of large radius. Road crossings were generally avoided, extensive dépôt grounds and accommodations were obtained at Cambridge and Boston, a liberal provision was made for the future, and a second track was soon provided. The fish-belly rail, popular in England, was first selected, and laid down upon stone cross-ties, upon a well-ballasted surface. These ties have proved less elastic and durable than those of wood. The cost of the line in 1837 was but $1,500,000, but it was carried soon after, by the completion of its second tracks and dépôt grounds, to $1,800,000; and, with a slight addition of debt for new equipage and the short branch at Woburn, the capital, for some twenty years, has continued stationary.

The stand-still policy has, until very recently, been the policy of the Boston and Lowell line; and this is almost as dangerous as the expansion policy. While the city of Lowell and the local business were annually progressive, other parties took up the subject of branches, and shaped them so as to divert the legitimate business of the Boston and Lowell line. A line was carried from Nashua to Worcester, diverting largely from the trunk line. The Manchester and Lawrence line made another diversion from the trunk line. The Lowell and Salem Rail-Road became another competitor, and, crossing the Boston and Maine, which might easily have been retained as a tributary, competed for all the heavy freight of the factories, and for a part of the Boston passenger. The Fitchburg line diverted also a business that might have been attracted to the Boston and Lowell and the trunk of the Boston and Lowell line. Like a solid oak, stripped of its leaves and denuded of its branches, it stood for a time almost in solitary grandeur, a warning to other lines not to neglect branch accommodation. Its stock declined from a high premium to about fifty per cent. At length a new policy was inaugu-

rated. Treaties were made, binding more closely to it the Nashua and Lowell line, and giving it the control of the Lowell branches. The diversion of business was thus arrested, and, under the able management of the present dynasty, the stock has risen above par, and good dividends are returned to the stockholders.

X. *The Boston and Providence Rail-Road.*—This line, 43 miles in length, is coeval also with the Boston and Worcester, and in 1835 came into active operation.

Its original cost was a little less than $1,800,000, and as it occupied an important route both to Providence and New-York, and succeeded to a large business previously conducted by teams and stages, it soon became a successful enterprise and made large dividends to the stockholders. It was distinguished at first for high charges. Its rates for passengers were 4¾ to 5 cents per mile, and its rate for freight was five dollars per ton, or twelve cents per ton a mile. But these high rates and a close and exclusive alliance with a line of steamers running through the Sound, aroused jealousy and opposition.

The Seekonk Branch was built, and a strenuous effort made to break the monopoly, which involved the company in a considerable expenditure. After this the Norwich and Worcester line obtained the State aid, and was pressed through with energy and much popular favor, in consequence of the high charges upon the Boston and Providence line; and when this new line was opened, in 1839, the net income of the Boston and Providence was reduced more than fifty per cent., and in 1840 its net revenue fell from ten to four and a half per cent.

The directors, who had to this point resisted the popular current, were at length obliged to reduce their passenger rates twenty-five per cent., and their freight charges forty per cent.

The effect of these measures was electric. Their warehouses soon overflowed with freight; a large amount of Providence business was soon diverted from New-York to Boston, and the foundation was laid for an active intercourse between Rhode Island and Massachusetts. The rail-road company was compelled to enlarge and rebuild its station-houses, and some gentlemen who had resisted all changes and listened with incredulity to the predictions of the results which occurred, at length commended the wisdom evinced in the new measures adopted.

From 1840 to 1847 the line continued to revive with the rapid growth of business, and in the latter year had again recovered its early prosperity and made large and satisfactory dividends; but success itself is often bewildering.

Large expenditures were made for a costly branch from West Roxbury to Dedham, a point already reached by a branch; an improvement which for a long time gave no adequate return. And further and still larger expenditures were made for a new route from the main track through Pawtucket to Providence, to avoid a ferry; some second track was also laid and costly buildings were erected.

By these measures the cost of construction was suddenly doubled, and the amount carried from $1,800,000 to $3,600,000, without securing any important feeder to the line.

This sudden change gave a severe shock to the company, which for several years found it very difficult to meet its interest, and a six per cent.

dividend, in place of the eight per cent. previously paid; but the gradual growth of business, the substitution of coal for wood and the beneficent hand of time, are again reducing the cost and swelling the dividend. Had the West Roxbury Branch been omitted, and the Providence improvements been gradually effected, no check need have been given to the prosperity of the company. This second lesson will probably need no repetition.

XI. *The Eastern Rail-Road.*—This is another important trunk line, leading from Boston along the eastern coast, through Lynn, Salem and Newburyport to the line of New-Hampshire. It was opened to Ipswich in 1839, and to the State line in November, 1840. Before its construction many of the best appointed stages run between Salem and Boston, and the new line reduced at least one-half both the time of transit and the cost of conveyance.

In selecting the original route it was a serious question whether it was most advisable to make a detour from Salem by Danvers and Charlestown to Boston, thus increasing the expense, adding a few miles to distance, but accommodating a large population and avoiding the ferry, or to adopt the more direct route by East Boston and the ferry. The engineer chose the least expensive and more direct course. The route he chose had certainly many advantages; it was nearly level, free from curvature, crossed few highways at grade, and comported best with the very moderate means of the company. It was connected with Boston proper by a commodious steam ferry.

In the construction of the line a light-edge rail was adopted. At a subsequent period a heavier rail, laid on longitudinal sills, was introduced, but these sills were affected by the frost and were eventually discarded.

The new line was for a series of years well conducted and eminently successful. It commenced with six per cent. dividends, in 1841, and raised them to eight per cent. in 1845, at which rate they were maintained for the seven succeeding years, under the able management of David A. Neal, Esq.

In 1845 the cost of the line, including a branch to Marblehead, was but $2,471,561, represented by—

The capital,.....	$ 1,800,000
State loan, funded at 5 per cent.,.....	500,000
Surplus earnings,.....	125,000
Balance,.....	46,561
	$ 2,471,561

And the net income over expenses and interest was $221,376, or more than twelve per cent. on the capital. And here we are again admonished how great are the dangers of success. Deterioration was then but little felt; the country was prosperous, the prospect of the future brilliant, and the company, in the course of 1846, commenced two branches to Salisbury and Gloucester. By these and other improvements the cost of construction was gradually increased, until, in January, 1852, it had risen to $3,647,000.

Represented by capital,.....	$ 2,850,000
State loan, at 5 per cent.,.....	500,000
Floating debt,.....	297,000

The company was still successful; its net income over expenses had attained to $317,000 in 1850, and it had continued to pay its eight per cent. dividends with great regularity; but new perils were at hand; the dangerous element of a floating debt had grown out of the new branches; rival companies had built a branch from the Boston and Maine line at South Reading to Salem, which made the distance from Boston to Salem twenty miles, against fourteen by the Eastern Rail-Road. Another company had made a branch from the same line to the western side of the city of Lynn.

With its direct and local route and other sources of business, it is safe to say that the Eastern Rail-Road could have put down these feeble rivals by competition at reduced prices; but its managers became alarmed, and fell into the error of buying both at an advance upon their cost, and into the still more serious error of constructing a new and circuitous route from their maine line in Chelsea into the city of Boston, with a view to avoid the ferry, and launched into the heavy expenditures which both these measures required, without any issue of new stock, without any just appreciation of the cost, and with the burthen of a floating debt hanging over them, and money worth more than ordinary interest.

A heavy debt was then created. Notes at one or two per cent. a month were thrown upon the market, and facilities afforded to an unscrupulous treasurer to dispose of funds. The net income was reduced. The principal part of it was absorbed by interest, and the dividends were suspended six years from 1854.

It is difficult to determine from the annual reports the precise cost of the South Reading and Saugus branches, but from January 1, 1852, to January 1, 1853, during which period the branches were purchased, the floating debt was increased $665,906, most of which was probably paid for the branches. And from January 1, 1853, to January 1, 1856, the debt was further increased $1,487,000, nearly all of which must have sprung from the entrance into Boston and the defalcations of the treasurer incident to the floating debt created.

In January, 1856, the account of the company, after its purchases and improvements, stood as follows:

Capital,	$ 2,853,400
Funded and floating debt,	2,949,737
	$ 5,803,137
In place of (in 1852,)	3,647,000

While the debt had thus increased $2,156,137, the net income, which before the purchase and extension was, in 1850, $317,000, had actually fallen, in 1855, to $305,000.

The entire outlay for the branches and extension, made at a period when labor and materials were rising, had thus resulted in a yearly loss of more than the interest paid on the whole outlay; surely a severe lesson.

The stock of this company, under this disaster, fell to 38 per cent., and a part of the burthen has been thrown upon the public, many of whom, on their way from Salem to Boston, have been compelled to make the detour by Saugus, (doubling the Cape or going round the Horn as the seafaring passengers express it,) and paying additional prices for increased detention.

But it is difficult to destroy a rail-road. For six years the directors have devoted income to debt, and have at length reduced the enormous debt nearly one-half. Income has gradually increased, the stock has risen to 72 per cent., the line has earned more than six per cent., and dividends on its capital have been resumed. The sky is not yet, however, entirely clear; the present managers have yet to learn the policy of burnetizing their timber, and of conciliating the public by such moderate prices as were charged in the prosperous days of the road, and running an evening train, to the neglect of which they may ascribe, in a greater or less degree, the new horse railway from Lynn to Boston.

XII. *The Boston and Maine Rail-Road.*—This important line was originally a humble scion or offshoot from the Boston and Lowell Rail-Road. It was a branch of about seven miles, from Wilmington to Andover. It was gradually extended to Haverhill, Exeter, Dover and Berwick, intersecting the Merrimac, Exeter and Cocheco Rivers at their lower waterfalls.

Although the Boston and Lowell line had entered Boston with a direct route and double track, the branch was induced, by some neglect or inattention to its interest, to apply, in 1844, for a separate entrance into Boston, relying upon the heavy toll it would save and the local business it might develop upon an independent track for its indemnity. Its prayer was granted by the State, and a new road, with double track, was at once laid into the heart of Boston, under the direction of JAMES HAYWARD, Esq., the eminent engineer who had been connected with the enterprise from its inception, and directed it until its completion. This is undoubtedly one of the best planned and most successful enterprises in the State. Judiciously located, carefully built, it has well rewarded the talent, experience and good judgment which have been devoted to its construction. Skilfully and liberally managed, it has built up villages along its line, given a great impulse to the city of Lawrence and every village it has touched, and drawn in feeders from every quarter.

It has met with some drawbacks from fires and ambitious shareholders who would have grasped its power and patronage, and ousted those who were the authors of its prosperity, but it has surmounted all these evils and now stands on terra firma.

XIII. *The Fitchburg Rail-Road.*—After the completion of the Boston and Worcester and the Boston and Lowell Rail-Roads the triangle between them remained for ten years unoccupied. The great stage line from Boston to Keene, Troy and Rutland passed through Waltham and Fitchburg, but most of the stages and teams were diverted, and the intervening country was depressed by the influence of the rail-roads to the right and to the left. Unsuccessful appeals were made to the Boston and Worcester direction to send off a branch from Framingham. Urgent requests were also made to the directors of the Boston and Lowell to construct a branch to Fitchburg; but this also proved unavailing, and, in 1842, Col. ALVAH CROCKER, who had made himself familiar with the country when the early surveys for a canal were made by Col. BALDWIN, planned the enterprise of an independent line to Boston. He addressed the people upon the route, called a convention, and took active measures to procure a charter.

The charter was granted in 1842. Very favorable contracts were made for construction, and the iron was purchased in England for the very low price of $22 75 per ton, by a committee of the directors. Although the means of the company were limited, they made liberal provisions for the future. They purchased some fifteen acres of land for freight grounds, fronting upon the harbor, and with tracks leading to deep water piers. They adopted a generous width of five rods in the location, a substantial rail and improved engines and cars, and by adopting a ruling gradient of forty feet, and pursuing the course of several valleys, were enabled to make a surface road, and to touch many important villages.

The road was substantially built in 1844, and the revenue of the ensuing year, about $208,000, confirmed the predictions of the directors, who had estimated it at $200,000.

The entire cost of the line, down to January, 1847, for fifty miles, including stations, equipage and some five miles of second track, was but $1,875,000.

From January, 1845, to 1853 the line enjoyed a high degree of prosperity. Its dividends ran to ten per cent., and its successive issues of stock sold at high premiums, at one period rising to 30 per cent. advance.

Lines radiated from it to Greenfield, Bellows Falls, Burlington, Montreal and Ogdensburg, and its directors, encouraged by the prospect of a growing business, were induced to extend the line across Charles River into Boston, to erect spacious warehouses and an elegant passenger house, to lay down a second track for the entire length of the line, and to avert competition were induced to construct several small branches. Passengers were transported at two to two and a half cents per mile, and a vast business in ice was developed, which was transported five to seven miles at forty cents per ton.

At length, however, the day of trial came for the Fitchburg. The new routes into the interior called for additional and express trains at high rates of speed, and contributed no adequate return either in passengers or low-priced freight; indeed, in some instances they diverted an important traffic in flour and grain from the Fitchburg line.

The second track, although laid down with iron at forty dollars per ton, called for at least fifty thousand dollars annual net income to defray repairs and interest. The express trains required at least an equal amount, and rails, cars and engines, under high speed, demanded a large outlay for renovation. Coincident with this came a rise in labor and materials. Under the combined influence of these causes, the net revenue declined, and became inadequate to meet the customary dividend, and in 1854 the dividends were suspended.

But the Fitchburg Rail-Road, although temporarily depressed, and although its great line of traffic across the Hoosac to Troy still remained unfinished, possessed great inherent vigor and recuperative power, and it had been honestly administered. Express trains have been withdrawn, speed reduced, all debts extinguished by surplus revenue, dividends have been resumed, and its bridges widened for side tracks and stations; a tributary line, twenty-seven miles in length, has been purchased, and paid for out of income, and a lease of $22,000 per annum has been extinguished; a branch to Watertown, once suspended, has been advertised to run; and now the Fitchburg line, with a growing business and vast provision of ground, wharves, stations and tracks for its great pros-

pective business, is frugally and faithfully administered, and stands in a position of strength and security.

Among the remedial measures adopted by the present board was an advance on rates, which were placed low at the inception of the enterprise to invite and attract business. The rise on freight has proved beneficial; the rise on passengers has been less satisfactory, having given some stimulus to horse railways, for the distance of seven miles from Boston; and the managers of the line have found, in several instances, a reduction of rates highly beneficial.

The Fitchburg Rail-Road Company now hold 150 miles of track in the main line and branches, at least three miles of water-front in Boston harbor, and a large surplus fund, costing, altogether, about $3,560,000.

If we exclude terminal stations, dépôt grounds and equipage, the entire cost of its tracks, for superstructure, land, road-bed and construction, will fall below $14,000 per mile.

XIV. *The Old Colony and Fall River Rail-Road.*—The Old Colony Rail-Road, from Boston to Plymouth, (the spot where the Pilgrims landed,) thirty-seven miles in length, was opened in December, 1845. It was not, however, fully completed until the close of the ensuing year, and suffered from having been run at sub-grade. With the exception of a commission paid to the treasurer, nominally for importing the iron, but really for his services in raising the funds, it was, like most of the Massachusetts lines, built with enconomy and fidelity to the interest of the company.

The selection of the route was made by commissioners. They chose the Abington in preference to the Bridgewater route, which was more circuitous, but more productive of freight and better adapted to future extension. The two routes diverge in the town of Braintree, eleven miles from Boston.

The decision in favor of the Abington route led to a petition for a branch from Braintree to Bridgewater, passing through a favorable valley, and accommodating several growing villages. The company opposed this application, and made a short branch from Abington to Bridgewater to counteract it; but the branch was chartered, and has been gradually extended to Fall River, Fair Haven, Wareham and Hyannis.

The adoption of the Abington route and construction of the short branch, followed by the new competing line, impaired the strength of the Old Colony Rail-Road. A floating debt was also thus created, and contracts were soon after made for the lease and equipment of the South Shore and Dorchester and Milton Rail-Roads, at six per cent. upon their cost, which eventually exceeded the estimate by nearly a quarter of a million; and to prevent the entire diversion of the Fall River line, a further contract was made to widen several bridges, lay a second track of eleven miles and erect one or two stations. When the Old Colony Rail-Road Company made these agreements, and increased its expenses, it was earning less than simple interest upon the cost of its line, it was subject to the weight of a large floating debt, and the rate of interest on all the securities it had to offer was verging upon eighteen to twenty-four per cent. per annum.

In this dangerous posture of affairs a new president came into power,

and at once adopted the policy of issuing stock and bonds to meet the danger. By vigorous efforts the required improvements were effected, the timber of the new line was kyanized, the leased roads were equipped and the floating debt extinguished. This was effected in 1847–1848, by the issue of stock and bonds at ninety down to seventy-five per cent., and the safety of the company was thus effectually insured. Immediate measures were taken to develop the revenues of the line, by the adoption of those rates which had been successful upon other routes, and a rapid growth of traffic was effected; but the healing hand of time was required to bring up the income to a height sufficient to make returns upon the additional million necessary to cover discounts, fund the floating debt and complete the contracts; and the new president, upon his retirement in 1850, was obliged to content himself with the consciousness of having performed an unpopular and painful duty, and the approbation of those who could appreciate his exertions. Before he retired, an effort was made to obtain for the company a grant of land on Five Point Channel; but the bill, after passing the committee, was defeated by adverse interests. A union with the Fall River line was also recommended, but the stockholders were not ripe for that important measure. His successors in office toiled on, without marked success, for several years, conducting a losing and costly contest, and disposing of surplus property. This was taken by the company at its start, in exchange for stock, from speculators in the South Cove, who afterwards opposed the grant of other lands from the State. Meanwhile the Fall River line moved on successfully, making regular dividends of eight per cent., while the Old Colony line applied its receipts to the purchase of its stock.

Upon the application of the former for a new and independent route into Boston, an act was passed for the union of the two companies. Three referees were agreed upon; the party selected by the Fall River line, the late John Davis, of Worcester, suddenly died, and the case was heard by the survivors, who, in valuing the stocks, gave to the company earning less than half the per centage on capital earned by the other a premium of about ten per cent. over its successful neighbor, and made an award which is an anomaly in rail-road history.

The Fall River line earned over twenty per cent. in 1852 and 1853; the Old Colony line, in the same two years, earned less than ten per cent., according to the reports under oath to the State.

It has been urged in favor of this award, that the income of the Fall River line was based, in part, on through business with New-York, which was subject to diversion; but it has proved reliable. It has been urged that the track, stations and engines of the Fall River line required repairs; but its surplus income would have soon repaired them, and the engines of the Old Colony line have since required repairs nearly as heavy as those of the Fall River road. It has been urged that the Old Colony line held much real estate; but this was depreciated in value, and, in part, a dead capital, while the Fall River Rail-Road has a cheap and productive surface line. The parties interested, however, preferred peace to war, and acquiesced in the result; the referees pocketed five thousand dollars fees for a few weeks' service, and the union, oppressive as it may have been to the gentlemen of Fall River, has answered all the predictions of its earliest advocates.

The united company has made regular dividends of six per cent., its

surplus revenue has extinguished the bonds, a large overplus has been accumulated for the benefit of the stockholders, who have patiently held the stock, and the road, well-administered in most particulars by its diligent president, is now earning more than ten per cent. upon its capital, although it has lost much of its short travel by high prices and horse railways.

XV. *The Boston and New-York Central Rail-Road.*—The seventh line out of Boston is the Boston and New-York Central Rail-Road, which originated in the Walpole branch, chartered April 16th, A. D. 1846. During the spring of that year seven petitions for rail-roads through Norfolk county came before the legislature. Rail-roads were successful, villages were aspiring, and there was intense solicitude and great rivalry exhibited by the advocates of different routes, and the most eminent counsel were arrayed against each other. The successful parties combined to defeat the bill reported by the committee, and the only line chartered was a branch from Dedham to Walpole.

During this contest a very vivid picture was drawn of the resources of the Blackstone Valley, and the next season, under a very favorable report of the feasibility of the route, which subsequent experience did not justify, the Walpole branch was extended, by charter, to Blackstone, under the name of the Norfolk County Rail-Road. In 1849 this line was opened to Blackstone.

Its managers determined early to make this line a portion of a direct road to New-York, and spared no pains or expense to perfect the road-bed. It was built in the best manner, by able engineers and contractors, and such was the cost that the company was compelled to subject it to a heavy mortgage, and the income from local traffic did not more than suffice to meet the interest upon the debt. The parties who embarked in it were determined that it should still go forward, and another charter was obtained to extend it to the Norwich and Worcester Rail-Road and thence to Southbridge, in 1851, and twenty-two miles from Blackstone to the Norwich and Worcester line were opened for use at the close of 1853, and some expenditures were subsequently made upon the extension to Southbridge.

A new line from Dedham to Boston, called the Midland, was then chartered, and the three lines combined under the title of the Boston and New-York Central Rail-Road Company, December 12th, 1853, and the entire line from Boston, near the foot of Summer-street, to the Norwich and Worcester line, 58 miles, was opened for use early in 1855.

But the means of the company were exhausted, and the struggle ended with the opening of the line; valuable land and important streets had been crossed, a tunnel had been carried under South Boston, below the level of the tide, valuable lots had been engaged for stations and the rails had been laid before the gradation and masonry were finished; inexorable land-owners called for their money, selectmen and commissioners for their bridges, the road itself for repairs. Rival companies were jealous, and threw a shade, not entirely undeserved, over the credit of the company, and in the summer of 1855 the company failed, and the trustees of the Norfolk County bonds entered for foreclosure, and made the middle section a tributary of the Boston and Providence Rail-Road. Various efforts have been made to revive the residue of the line, but

there has been no consentaneous action of the creditors. Every claimant of land damages had a right to enjoin the company not to run until his claim was paid, and the rails of the Boston and New-York Central, like the fowling-piece of RIP VAN WINKLE, rust while the owners sleep.

The entire cost of this line down to 1855 exceeds $3,750,000. The holders of the Norfolk County bonds, in amount $412,000, alone receive the interest on their debt, although there is little reason to doubt that the road, which, in separate sections, unfinished, has earned $2,000 to $3,000 per mile, would, if finished to Southbridge, pay the interest on one or two millions, and when made a part of a through line to New-York or Albany, as it well may be, would pay the interest on a larger amount.

XVI. *The Western Rail-Road.*—We have now finished our *resumé* of the seven trunk lines out of Boston, and must glance at the great Western Rail-Road, still the principal line of the State. It is a continuation of the Boston and Worcester Rail-Road, for a distance of 155 miles, from Worcester to Greenbush, opposite Albany, with branches to Hudson and North Adams.

This line was commenced in 1836, received loans on mortgage from Massachusetts and the city of Albany to the amount of five millions, and was opened for use at the close of 1842.

The Western Rail-Road on its way to the West encountered very serious obstacles; it crosses the Monadnock range of mountains at a summit one thousand feet above the sea, and the spurs of the Green Mountains, in Berkshire, at an elevation of fourteen hundred and forty feet, and threads the narrow ravine of the Pontoosuc, where it is inscribed into the sides of the mountain, passing from cuts seventy feet deep across the spurs of the mountain on to embankments seventy feet high, and over stone bridges sixty to eighty feet above the stream.

The entire road has cost ten millions of dollars, has established extensive dépôts upon the Hudson, where it receives freight from the canal-boats, and has laid down a second track for a great part of the way.

Its annual revenue is not far from two millions of dollars; it has for years regularly paid eight per cent.; applies a surplus to improvements, and annually accumulates nearly two hundred thousand dollars in sinking funds, which already exceed two millions of dollars.

In its infancy this road had a very severe struggle for existence. At one period its stock fell to 40 per cent., and it became for a time a mere foot-ball for the brokers. Its chief engineer equipped the freight-trains with crab-engines, with cog-wheels and vertical tubes, which proved a very dear purchase, checked the freight business and greatly retarded the prosperity of the road. And yet they were so highly commended at first, that the gentlemen who opposed their purchase and predicted their failure, came near losing their seats in the direction for their opinions. Some of the same gentlemen were opposed because they advocated the present tariff of freight and the fare of $5 and $4 to Albany from Boston, both of which are now understood to be the rates realized on the through tickets. The views of those who have studied deeply, and reflected much, although sometimes denounced as radical, eventually often become the established standard.

The Western Rail-Road, although debarred by its heavy gradients of

seventy to eighty feet per mile, from carrying large masses of flour, grain and other cheap freight at low prices, in competition with the sea route, has carried much valuable freight, has become a great thoroughfare for travellers between Boston, Albany and New-York; built up many villages, transported large quantities of local freight and greatly enhanced the value of estates upon its borders, and the aid furnished by Massachusetts and by Albany has enured to the benefit of both.

XVII. *The Troy and Greenfield Rail-Road.*—The Fitchburg Rail-Road is extended from Fitchburg to Greenfield, a distance of 45 miles by the Vermont and Massachusetts Rail-Road, a line built in the most substantial manner, and which will form an important link in the new line to the Hudson, but which is now gradually paying a debt incurred in construction from its local business. Its gradients from the west are very favorable, none exceeding 45 feet to the mile.

At Greenfield, the Troy and Greenfield line commences, and, pursuing the rich valley of the Deerfield, and touching Shelburne Falls, passing under the Hoosac Mountains and through North Adams, Williamstown and a corner of Vermont, falls into the Troy and Boston Rail-Road at the line of the State of New-York.

By the close of the present year the line from Boston will touch the eastern part of the mountain, and the rail-road from Troy already touches its western base, and nothing will then remain to be done but a horse railway upon the highway over the mountain, to form the connection until the tunnel is finished.

This great work is now making regular advances, and receives the benefit of a loan from Massachusetts, nearly sufficient to pay the laborers; it is regularly advanced as each thousand feet is completed.

The tunnel has already advanced two-thirds of a mile at the eastern end; a shaft has been rapidly sunk half a mile from the western end to the depth of three hundred and twenty-five feet at the grade line, which opens two additional faces to contractors.

The work from the eastern end, to a point some distance west of the shaft, consists of mica slate in vertical layers, which form a regular and sufficient arch and are easily penetrated. No water has thus far been encountered sufficient to retard operations either in the shaft or drifts, although much was *kindly* promised by opposing engineers when a State loan was agitated.

Mechanism, like that employed in the Mount Cenis and Saxony Tunnels, will soon be applied to work the drills with such improvements as the able engineer, Mr. HAUPT, has perfected, which it is believed will double the rate of progress.

And the fact that the shaft just finished has required no pump, and has been worked rapidly and at light expense, will offer strong inducements for the construction of others.

When this great work is achieved, the distance between Boston or Salem, Haverhill, Newburyport, Lawrence or Lowell and Troy, will be reduced between 22 and 30 miles. The summit will be cut down 700 feet; cheap fuel will be furnished, and the tractive power of the engine, compared with those of the Western Rail-Road, will be nearly doubled by a reduction of gradients and diminution of curves.

The Commonwealth is now advancing five dollars per lineal foot on

the rail-road, and fifty dollars per lineal foot upon the tunnel, which will probably insure their completion.

When completed, their effect must be in the diminution of distance, curves, summits, gradients and use of fuel, to reduce at least one-third the cost of transit between Boston and Troy, and to place the seaports of Massachusetts Bay nearly upon a footing with New-York for the exports of western produce to Europe. And if it be the intention of Mr. Wood to secede and take with him the island of Manhattan, let her be assured that the old Peninsula of Shawmut will preserve and improve its union with the West and aspire to be one of its seaports.

XVIII. We might point out the peculiarities and chief points of interest in the history of other lines of Massachusetts.

There is the Connecticut River line, resuming its former dividend after shaking off the incubus of the Ashuelet Lease, against which it was in vain cautioned.

There are the Nashua and Worcester, the Taunton Branch, Taunton and New-Bedford, Cape Cod, Newburyport and other lines earning good dividends by economy and forecast, but time will not suffice to describe them all in our limited space.

A compendious view of the rise, decline and recovery of rail-road property in Massachusetts, and of its present position, may be taken, however, from the following table of the prices of the leading lines of Massachusetts at different periods:

Average Market Value of Rail-Road Stocks during the year 1845, *and their market value in January*, 1857, *and April*, 1861.

Corporations.	*Price*, 1845.	*Price, Jan.*, 1857.	*Price, April*, 1861.	*Dividend, July*, 1861.
Boston and Worcester Rail-Road Co.,...	$ 119	.. $ 83	.. $ 113	.. 4 per cent.
Boston and Providence Rail-Road Co.,..	111	.. 66	.. 111	.. 4 "
Boston and Lowell Rail-Road Co.,.....	120	.. 54	.. 107	.. 3 "
Eastern Rail-Road Company,.....	109	.. 40	.. 72	.. 2 "
Boston and Maine Rail-Road Company,..	112	.. 77	.. 115	.. 3½ "
Fitchburg Rail-Road Company,.....	120	.. 70	.. 102	.. 3 "
Western Rail-Road Company,.....	102	.. 89	.. 116	.. 4 "
Providence and Worcester Rail-Road Co.,	..	.. ..	.. ..	.. 4 "

Our brief *resumé* will have answered its purpose if it has enforced the lessons of experience that forecast, caution, frugality and patience are essential to the success of railways, that neither apathy or recklessness should guide their councils. That floating debts should be avoided. That the wishes and interests of the public must be regarded, and that grave errors are not to be corrected or counteracted by excessive charges; and, above all, that the natural growth of traffic, if countenanced and encouraged by the rail-road itself, will bring prosperity in its train in America as it has done in Europe.

INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL CITIES.

BALTIMORE.

The leading branches of commerce at Baltimore, for some years, have been flour, grain, tobacco, guano, copper and coffee. From the eleventh annual report of the Baltimore Board of Trade, for the year 1860, we extract the following details:

VALUE OF FOREIGN IMPORTS AND EXPORTS AT THE DISTRICT OF BALTIMORE FOR THE LAST FOURTEEN YEARS.

	Imports.	*Exports.*		*Imports.*	*Exports.*
1847,.....	$4,146,743	$9,826,479	1854,.....	$7,750,387	$11,306,012
1848,.....	5,245,894	7,209,609	1855,.....	7,772,591	11,675,996
1849,.....	5,291,566	8,660,982	1856,.....	10,140,838	13,362,252
1850,.....	6,417,113	8,530,971	1857,.....	11,054,676	11,398,940
1851,.....	7,243,963	6,466,160	1858,.....	7,954,422	10,235,890
1852,.....	5,978,021	7,549,768	1859,.....	10,408,993	8,724,261
1853,.....	6,331,671	9,086,910	1860,.....	10,271,818	10,968,599

The inspections of flour have decreased of late years. In the year 1852 they were 1,307,166 bbls., and in the year 1853 1,183,704 bbls. The export to Brazil was formerly much larger than it is now.

FLOUR INSPECTIONS IN BALTIMORE FOR THE LAST FIVE YEARS.

	1860.	1859.	1858.	1857.	1856.
	bbls.	bbls.	bbls.	bbls.	bbls.
Howard Street,.....	368,647	296,245	246,258	264,471	371,128
City Mills,.....	299,927	356,391	342,437	352,419	386,286
Ohio,.....	165,314	104,571	313,310	208,872	158,425
Family,.....	132,627	106,176	50,046	30,152	24,475
Total,.....	966,515	863,383	952,051	855,914	940,314
Rye,.....	11,476	11,837	9,554	9,141	8,278
Corn Meal,.....	51,215	54,758	58,142	34,943	51,947

COMPARATIVE RECEIPTS OF GRAIN FOR FOUR YEARS.

DESCRIPTIONS.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
	bushels.	bushels.	bushels.	bushels.
Wheat,.....	3,103,498	2,716,731	3,064,000	2,839,977
Corn,.....	4,183,854	4,046,745	3,620,900	3,044,861
Oats,.....	1,200,000	1,115,194	950,476	1,086,750
Rye,.....	160,000	108,378	140,970	101,971
Peas,.....	3,000	7,000	6,400	10,000
Beans,.....	2,000	1,000	3,260	2,500
Total,.....	8,652,352	7,995,048	7,786,000	7,085,559

FLOUR INSPECTIONS AT BALTIMORE, SINCE 1841.

	bbls.		bbls.
1841,.....	628,974	1849,.....	764,519
1842,.....	558,282	1850,.....	896,592
1843,.....	560,431	1851,.....	912,498
1844,.....	499,501	1852,.....	1,307,166
1845,.....	576,745	1853,.....	1,183,704
1846,.....	850,116	1854,.....	837,195
1847,.....	959,456	1855,.....	957,739
1848,.....	736,441	1856,.....	940,314

Tobacco.—The largest export of tobacco from the port of Baltimore, since 1841, was in the year 1860, viz., 67,142 hhds. The following shows the annual export from Baltimore, and from all ports of the United States, from 1841 to 1847 :*

	From Baltimore. hhds.	*From other ports.* hhds.	*From United States.* hhds.	*Total value.*
1841,.....	35,482 ..	112,346 ..	147,828 ..	$12,576,703
1842,.....	43,763 ..	114,947 ..	158,710 ..	9,540,755
1843,.....	42,324 ..	52,130 ..	94,454 ..	4,650,979
1844,.....	44,910 ..	118,132 ..	163,042 ..	8,397,255
1845,.....	65,910 ..	81,258 ..	147,168 ..	7,469,819
1846,.....	51,386 ..	96,612 ..	147,998 ..	8,478,270
1847,.....	53,344 ..	82,418 ..	135,762 ..	7,242,086

TOBACCO INSPECTIONS AT BALTIMORE FOR THE LAST TWELVE YEARS.

Years.	*Maryland.*	*Ohio.*	*Kentucky and other kinds.*	*Total hhds.*	STOCKS. *Baltimore.*	STOCKS. *N. Orl'ns.*
1860,.....	51,000 ..	23,000 ..	3,100 ..	77,503 ..	24,436 ..	13,814
1859,.....	44,480 ..	15,331 ..	3,022 ..	62,801 ..	14,073 ..	19,111
1858,.....	45,200 ..	22,300 ..	3,169 ..	70,669 ..	8,354 ..	20,167
1857,.....	38,057 ..	7,640 ..	1,608 ..	47,305 ..	4,219 ..	5,078
1856,.....	38,330 ..	12,959 ..	1,563 ..	52,852 ..	4,584 ..	10,212
1855,.....	28,470 ..	10,097 ..	991 ..	39,558 ..	7,439 ..	5,034
1854,.....	26,048 ..	10,362 ..	2,560 ..	38,970 ..	3,733 ..	6,577
1853,.....	29,248 ..	17,947 ..	1,472 ..	48,667 ..	9,779 ..	28,250
1852,.....	29,569 ..	17,720 ..	1,043 ..	48,332 ..	11,759 ..	23,510
1851,.....	25,013 ..	16,798 ..	931 ..	42,742 ..	17,699 ..	9,099
1850,.....	27,085 ..	13,965 ..	783 ..	41,833 ..	10,617 ..	11,050
1849,.....	30,689 ..	13,664 ..	1,248 ..	45,601 ..	19,628 ..	5,428
Total,.....	413,189 ..	181,783 ..	21,490 ..	616,833 ..	136,320 ..	167,330
Average,..	34,432 ..	15,148 ..	1,790 ..	51,400 ..	11,360 ..	13,944

EXPORTS OF TOBACCO FROM THE PORT OF BALTIMORE FOR THE LAST THIRTEEN YEARS.

Years.	*Bremen.*	*Rotterdam.*	*Amsterdam.*	*France.*	*All other places.*	*Total hhds.*
1860,.....	24,700 ..	22,700 ..	5,244 ..	6,825 ..	7,677 ..	67,142
1859,.....	19,180 ..	21,735 ..	1,253 ..	8,311 ..	5,495 ..	55,974
1858,.....	16,542 ..	18,059 ..	3,825 ..	16,935 ..	11,173 ..	66,534
1857,.....	18,034 ..	11,711 ..	4,054 ..	7,438 ..	6,325 ..	47,562
1856,.....	20,612 ..	14,215 ..	7,779 ..	4,891 ..	8,301 ..	55,798
1855,.....	9,103 ..	7,510 ..	10 ..	7,527 ..	1,144 ..	36,392
1854,.....	18,016 ..	7,407 ..	5,583 ..	10,180 ..	4,006 ..	45,192
1853,.....	18,947 ..	10,395 ..	9,980 ..	5,380 ..	5,986 ..	50,688
1852,.....	22,860 ..	11,473 ..	5,067 ..	7,679 ..	7,734 ..	54,813
1851,.....	12,654 ..	9,694 ..	4,154 ..	2,327 ..	5,292 ..	34,124
1850,.....	15,864 ..	7,815 ..	5,973 ..	8,177 ..	6,940 ..	44,368
1849,.....	18,821 ..	13,783 ..	8,725 ..	9,562 ..	1,033 ..	51,924
1848,.....	12,787 ..	7,910 ..	3,103 ..	5,761 ..	131 ..	38,890

See MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE, July, 1861, p. 58.

PRICES OF MARYLAND, OHIO AND KENTUCKY TOBACCO ON THE 15TH OF JANUARY, AND ABOUT THE SAME TIME EACH ALTERNATE MONTH, 1860.

MARYLAND.	*Jan.* 16.	*March* 15.	*May* 15.	*July* 15.	*Sept.* 15.	*Nov.* 15.
Inferior to common,...	2 @ 3	2 @ 3	2 @ 3	2 @ 3	2 @ 3	2 @ 3
Good common,.....	3½ @ 4	3½ @ 4	3½ @ 4½	3½ @ 4½	3½ @ 4½	3½ @ 4½
Middling,.....	4½ @ 5½	4½ @ 5½	5 @ 6½	5 @ 6½	5 @ 6½	5 @ 6½
Good to fine brown,...	6 @ 10	6 @ 10	7 @ 9½	7 @ 9½	7 @ 9½	7 @ 9½
Fine brown and colory,	10 @ 13	10 @ 13	9½ @ 12	9½ @ 12	9½ @ 12	9½ @ 12
Ground leaves,.....	3 @ 6	3 @ 6	3 @ 6	3 @ 6	3 @ 6	5½ @ 6
OHIO.						
Inferior to common,...	nominal.	3 @ 4	3 @ 4	3 @ 4	3 @ 4	3 @ 4
Red and spangled,....	nominal.	5 @ 6½	5 @ 6½	5 @ 6½	5 @ 6½	5 @ 6½
Good and fine spangled,	nominal.	7 @ 8	7 @ 8	7 @ 9	7 @ 9	7 @ 9
Good and fine yellow,..	nominal.	9 @ 12	10 @ 12	10 @ 12	10 @ 12	10 @ 12
KENTUCKY.						
Common lugs,.....	nominal.	4½ @ 4½	4½ @ 5	3 @ 3½	3½ @ 4	4 @ —
Fair to good,.....	nominal.	5 @ 5½	5½ @ 6	4 @ 4½	4½ @ 5	4½ @ 5
Common leaf,.....	nominal.	6 @ 6½	6½ @ 7	5 @ 5½	5½ @ 6	5½ @ 6
Fair leaf,.....	nominal.	7 @ 7½	7½ @ 8	6 @ 7	6½ @ 7½	6½ @ 7½
Good leaf,.....	nominal.	8 @ 8½	8½ @ 9	8 @ 9	7½ @ 8½	7½ @ 8½
Fine to choice,.....	nominal.	9 @ 12½	10 @ 12½	10 @ 12	9 @ 13	9 @ 13

IMPORTS OF GUANO AT BALTIMORE FOR THE LAST TWELVE YEARS.

	Tons.		*Tons.*
1849, Peruvian,.....	2,700	1855, all kinds,.....	43,930
1850, "	6,800	1856, "	38,706
1851, "	25,000	1857, "	28,625
1852, "	25,500	1858, "	28,143
1853, "	32,152	1859, "	63,206
1854, all kinds,.....	58,927	1860, "	71,614

Guano.—The importations at Baltimore the past year have been as follows: of Peruvian, 56,584 tons, (including 2,450 tons coastwise;) Mexican, 5,150 tons; Sombrero, 4,156 tons; Nevassa, 3,830 tons; Jarvis Island, 450 tons; Baker's Island, 830 tons; Elide Island, 390 tons; African, 110 tons; Johnson's Island, 114 tons—in all 71,614 tons, against 63,206 tons in 1859, being the largest supply ever before received at this port. The demand for all descriptions have been good, and prices have ruled steady during the year. During the past month the arrivals of Peruvian have been quite free, and the stock at the close in warehouses is estimated at 18,000 @ 20,000 tons, being double the quantity on hand same time last year.

There is, however, no prospect of any reduction in the price. The recent contracts with the Peruvian government require enormous advances from the contractors. The consumption in Europe is much greater than in this country, and there is a treaty stipulation with England which prohibits a reduction in prices in this country without a corresponding reduction in Europe. It continues to be a well-established fact, that the deposits of guano in the Chincha Islands are inexhaustible, so far as the present generation is concerned. The monopoly is complete, for there is no other guano, except in very limited quantities. The origin of all guano is the same, but this is the only deposit where there is a total absence of rain. At all other localities, the ammonia being soluble, is washed out by rain. Guano continues to be imported from Jarvis and Baker's Islands, in the Pacific. It is only valuable for its phosphates,

and is subject to the cost of high freights. Mexican and Sombrero continue to arrive. The Ichobold from Africa, the West India, the Elide, California and the Columbian have been quite exhausted. The total value of guano at importers' prices the past year is estimated at $3,700,000.

Copper.—The two smelting establishments have been in full operation the past year, producing over 10,000,000 lbs. of ingot copper, that takes the preference in the market, and, of course, is eagerly bought as fast as made. Baltimore is better situated for smelting copper ores than any other place in the country, as there is no coal equal to the Cumberland for it. Ingot copper has ruled very steady the whole year at 21½ @ 23 cents per pound. The quantity exported to foreign ports direct amount to 547,500 lbs., principally to Bremen and Holland.

Iron.—As a general remark, the state of the iron trade for the year has been satisfactory, without any great fluctuations. The demand has been equal to the supply, and most of the furnaces and rolling-mills have had constant employment, although the profits have been small; but by economy and good management (which, after all, is the secret of the success of all branches of manufacturing) it has been sufficiently remunerative to encourage an outlay for an increased business for 1861. The proprietors of one of the large rolling-mills are making arrangements to nearly double the production of their celebrated boiler iron.

IMPORTS OF COFFEE AT BALTIMORE FROM BRAZIL, FOR THE PAST SEVENTEEN YEARS.

Year.	*Bags.*	*Year.*	*Bags.*
1844,	122,837	1854,	200,829
1845,	104,316	1855,	249,060
1846,	162,832	1856,	197,989
1847,	115,261	1857,	203,560
1848,	204,485	1858,	188,019
1849,	186,173	1859,	230,984
1850,	144,492	1860,	181,292
1851,	256,142		
1852,	224,080	Total,	3,153,337
1853,	185,980	Average,	185,190

Coal.—During the past year the aggregate receipts foot up 722,813 tons of all kinds, being an increase of 120,000 tons compared with last year, and equally divided between the bituminous and anthracite. The dealers engaged in this branch of business very generally complain of the high rates of freight imposed by the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-Road, and lead us to infer that with lower rates a largely increased business would be the result.

All the bituminous coal received was brought here *via* the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-Road, but of the anthracite coal brought to our market, 173,850 tons were received *via* the Northern Central Railway, and 151,279 tons *via* the Susquehanna and Tide-Water Canal. Bituminous coal has sold through the year with but little variation at $3 15 for fine, $3 50 for run of mine, and $4 25 per ton for lump, delivered on board at Locust Point; but for anthracite coal prices have ranged at from $4 25 up to $5 25 per ton, the former being the lowest, and the latter the highest price for it during the year.

RECEIPTS OF CUMBERLAND COAL AT BALTIMORE IN 1859 AND 1860.

	1859.	1860.		1859.	1860.
January,.....	20,204	14,404	July,.....	30,792	43,659
February,.....	16,136	16,569	August,.....	34,993	44,291
March,.....	21,468	31,384	September,.....	30,989	30,935
April,.....	23,563	36,607	October,.....	36,340	38,444
May,.....	40,464	47,367	November,.....	33,962	29,932
June,.....	35,096	37,202	December,.....	24,814	26,890
Total,.....	156,931	183,533	Total,.....	191,890	214,151

Total receipts in 1859,.....tons, 351,821
" " 1860,..... " 397,684

Increase in 1860,..... " 45,863

RECEIPTS OF COAL AT BALTIMORE FOR THE PAST TEN YEARS, TO 31ST DECEMBER.

	Bituminous.	*Anthracite.*		*Bituminous.*	*Anthracite.*
1851,.....	163,855	200,000	1856,.....	446,981	266,661
1852,.....	256,000	125,000	1857,.....	444,603	243,482
1853,.....	406,183	183,000	1858,.....	318,607	256,105
1854,.....	451,070	238,740	1859,.....	351,821	268,189
1855,.....	389,741	265,921	1860,.....	397,684	325,129

Oysters.—The oyster-packing business of Baltimore is still fully maintained. There are now engaged in its prosecution about thirty houses, employing a large number of persons of both sexes, in the different departments of shucking, packing, &c. The quantity of oysters used by the trade during a season, viz., from September 1st to June 15th, is about 3,000,000 bushels, averaging 10,000 bushels per day. The latter part of last season was very brisk, but this fall the trade has, in common with all other branches, suffered from the political panic. About two-thirds of the oysters taken by the packers are put up in a raw state in ice, and sent to all the cities in the West. The balance is put up sealed, and also sent in the same direction—St. Louis being the principal point for distributing to the extreme West. The shipments to California and foreign ports is not so great as formerly. There are employed in bringing oysters to this port several hundred vessels, carrying an average of 700 bushels each, with a crew of four persons to each vessel. There are about 2,000 persons of both sexes engaged in shucking, packing, &c., the larger proportion of whom are negroes. There are also about 200 persons employed in soldering the cans, making boxes and packing in ice ready for shipment. Another department of this business is the manufacture of cans, which employs some 200 tinners, at an annual cost of $400,000. We also notice the receipt of 200,000 bushels, of which 30,000 bushels are brought by the Norfolk and other steamers, for city consumption, and averaging 50 cents per bushel. The principal items of the trade we recapitulate as follows:

Number of packing houses,.....30	Vessels employed,.....500
Bushels packed.....3,000,000	Persons employed,.....3,000
Cost, at 35 cts. per bushel,....$1,050,000	Total value of trade,.....$1,800,000

The officers of the Baltimore Board of Trade, elected October 1st, 1860, are as follows:—President, JOHN C. BRUNE; Vice-Presidents, A. SCHUMACHER, THOMAS C. JENKINS, WILLIAM MCKIM, ROBERT LESLIE; Treasurer, E. B. DALLAM; Secretary, GEORGE U. PORTER.

VESSELS ARRIVED AT BALTIMORE DURING THE YEAR 1860, EXCLUSIVE OF BAY CRAFT.

Months.	*Stm'rs.*	*Ships.*	*Barks.*	*Brigs.*	*Schrs.*	*Total 1860.*	*Total 1859.*	*Total 1858.*
Total 1860,....	512	121	190	287	1,310	2,426	2,373	2,387
Total 1859,....	480	115	184	330	1,264	2,373	....	....
Total 1858,....	459	97	173	318	1,340	2,387	....	....
Total 1857,....	436	92	178	324	1,375	2,405	....	....
Total 1856,....	342	96	190	332	1,485	2,444	....	....
Total 1855,....	333	130	221	312	1,246	2,222	....	....

NUMBER AND CLASS OF FOREIGN VESSELS ARRIVED AT BALTIMORE THE PAST YEAR, AND COMPARED WITH THE TWO PREVIOUS YEARS.

Flag.	*Ships.*	*Barks.*	*Brigs.*	*Schrs.*	*Total 1860.*	*Total 1859.*	*Total 1858.*
British,.....	5	15	70	26	116	159	160
Bremen,.....	28	11	1	..	40	28	31
Prussian,.....	4	4	1	..	9	6	5
Oldenburg,.....	..	2	..	..	2	2	2
Hamburg,.....	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
Sicilian,.....	..	..	1	..	1	2	1
Austrian,.....	..	..	..	..	..	2	..
French,.....	..	1	..	..	1	1	..
Brazilian,.....	..	..	..	..	..	1	..
Danish,.....	..	..	3	..	3	..	..
Other Nations,....	..	3	7	..	10	1	4
Total,.....	37	36	83	26	182	203	204

COTTON, FLAX, WOOL AND SILK.

THEIR EARLY HISTORY IN THE UNITED STATES.

I. THE FIRST LEGISLATION IN MASSACHUSETTS IN BEHALF OF DOMESTIC INDUSTRY. II. INTRODUCTION OF THE COTTON GIN. III. THE FIRST EXPORTS OF COTTON FROM THE UNITED STATES. IV. INDIA COTTON AND SILK GOODS. V. THE USE OF FLAX FIFTY YEARS AGO. VI. EFFECTS OF THE EMBARGO AND THE WAR WITH ENGLAND. VII. STEAM NAVIGATION AND RAIL-ROADS. VIII. THE IMPULSE GIVEN TO MANUFACTURES BY THE DISCOVERY OF GOLD IN CALIFORNIA.

THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE for May contains some instructive statistics relative to the growth and manufacture of cotton. I propose to add some remarks as to the early operations in this article.

I. In the year 1752, the General Court of the colony of Massachusetts Bay passed an act for the encouragement of industry, and in the year following a spinning-bee was held on Boston Common, and the Boston *Post*, printed in that year, says, five hundred spinning-wheels were there displayed, and the daughters of some of the first families were there engaged in spinning.

The cultivation of cotton in the southern portion of the United States has increased enormously since 1792, when the cotton gin was first used.

II. Some few years since the late Professor OLMSTEAD, of Yale College,

Connecticut, presented me a copy of his memoir of ELI WHITNEY, inventor of the cotton gin. In the memoir, he says:

"ELI WHITNEY was born at Westboro', Worcester County, Massachusetts, December 8, 1765. Mr. WHITNEY left New-Haven, Connecticut, for the State of Georgia, in 1792, for the purpose of undertaking the business of a teacher in a private family in that State; the person who contracted with him disappointed him, and avoided the engagement, and he was left a guest in the family of General GREEN. While under their hospitable roof he discovered a plan for constructing the cotton gin, now extensively used. How wonderful are events; how often the disappointments in one concern pave the way for success in others, which, but for the particular disappointment, might have remained dormant.

"In 1784 an American vessel arrived at Liverpool, England, having on board, for part of her cargo, eight *bags* of cotton, which were seized by the officers of the custom-house, under the conviction that they could not be the growth of America. The following extracts from the old newspapers will exhibit the extent of the cotton trade for the subsequent years:

III. *Cotton from America arrived at Liverpool, England.*

1785, January,	Diana,	from	Charleston,	1	bag.	
February,	Jennings,	"	New-York,	1	"	
June,	Grange,	"	Philadelphia,	3	"	
				—		5
1786, May,	Thomas,	"	Charleston,	2	bags.	
June,	Juno,	"	"	4	"	
				—		6
1787, April,	John,	"	Philadelphia,	6	bags.	
June,	Wilson,	"	New-York,	9	"	
"	Grange,	"	Philadelphia,	9	"	
Aug.,	Henderson,	"	Charleston,	40	"	
Dec.,	John,	"	Philadelphia,	44	"	
				—		108
1788, Jan.,	Mersey,	"	Charleston,	1	bag.	
"	Grange,	"	Philadelphia,	5	"	
June,	John,	"	"	30	"	
July,	Harriet,	"	New-York,	62	"	
"	Grange,	"	Philadelphia,	111	"	
"	Polly,	"	Charleston,	73	"	
				—		282

"The whole domestic exports from the United States in 1825 were valued at $66,940,000, of which value $36,346,000 was in cotton only. In general, this article is equal to some millions more than one-half of our exports. The average growth of the three previous years to 1828 was estimated at 900,000 bales, which is near 300,000,000 lbs., of which one-fifth was consumed in our manufactories."

In the first few years of the present century, and prior to the declaration of war against England in 1812, the common white cotton goods used in New-England were imported from the East Indies, and consisted of long cloths, lawns, emerties, baftas and gurrahs. The fine were jaconet, mull, shear and book muslins, some of which were very superior goods.

IV. Blue, yellow and white nankeens were imported from China, and those called company nankeens were beautiful fabrics.

Bandanna and silk-flag handkerchiefs were imported from India, and those known as company flags and bandannas were of excellent fabric and bright fast colors, and the goods were very durable.

Nankin and Canton crapes for ladies' dresses, crape shawls and scarfs, were also imported from China, and those first imported were of an excellent quality, and the colors bright and good; but importers thought to make the trade more profitable by ordering crapes of a lighter fabric, inferior in quality and at less price, and this system was pursued until these goods became so poor as to become unfashionable and of little value.

V. I was a clerk in a country store in New-England for five years prior to the war of 1812, in which all kinds of goods were usually sold, and there I obtained a particular knowledge, by the daily sales of such goods to customers. At this time flax was raised abundantly in New-England, and farmers exchanged flaxseed and dressed and hackled flax raised on their farms, and the farmers' wives and daughters linen and tow cloth, and linen thread and tow wrapping twine, for store goods. The linen sheetings and shirtings, thread and wrapping twine were made in farmers' houses; then the female portion of the family were accustomed to the labor of spinning, weaving and knitting, and in many families the prosperity of the household was as much owing to the labors in-doors as that of out-doors on the farms.

VI. The embargo and the non-intercourse acts which preceded the declaration of war against England, in 1812, stopped the East India and English trade, and then *factories were first erected in New-England* for the manufacture of cotton and woollen goods. The cotton factories multiplied rapidly, and afforded a home market for the cotton which the embargo, non-intercourse and war had accumulated in the warehouses of the Southern States.

This brief statement, thus chronologically presented, shows an extraordinary progress; and, when the causes and results are compared, are instructive to the meditative as well as the contemplative mind.

VII. Only five years prior to the introduction of the cotton gin the first steamboat made a trip from Burlington, N. J., to Philadelphia, Pa., in fourteen hours, and that steamboat was the invention of a New-Englander, JOHN FITCH, a clock-maker by trade, born at Hartford, Conn. The rail-road followed, and the first I recollect to have seen was that invented by Dr. CALVIN CONANT, of Brandon, Vt., put in operation on the banks of the River Muskingum, in Ohio, for transporting coal; and after that, in due course of time, came the telegraph wires, an invention by a son of the Rev. JEDEDIAH MORSE, of Charlestown, Massachusetts. The progress of change since the termination of the American Revolution has been remarkable.

I will here mention, as an illustration of the effects of change, the cultivation of the potato as an article of food. Potatoes were first used for food subsequent to the settlement of America by white men, and such was the increase, that in the year 1847–48, a failure of the potato crop in Ireland, by reason of the potato rot, the Bank of England, the mammoth money concern of the civilized world, became a borrower of the Bank of France.

VIII. In the month of June, 1848, an humble laborer, while occupied in digging a mill-race for Colonel SUTTER, at Sutter's Fort, first made the discovery of gold in California, and from that time to the present more than six hundred million dollars in value of gold has been received from this section of the continent.

The silks, now so extensively worn in every part of the civilized world are the product of industry—the WORM, an humble insect, produces all the silk.

The recent experiments made in the cottonizing of flax have acquired additional importance from the present disturbed state of the cotton-growing districts of the United States, and these misfortunes may be the means, under Providence, of renewing the cultivation of flax in New-England, so long neglected.

The great export of flaxseed in India evidences that flax is raised in great abundance in that part of the globe. In France the finest cambrics are made of flax, and the richest laces are of that material. The French linen cambrics are beautiful goods.

In the year 1812 it was deemed PATRIOTISM to clothe in *homespun;* and the President of the United States wore a broadcloth suit of clothes, the wool and the fabric of which were from New-England. E. M.

STATISTICS OF MANUFACTURES IN THE UNITED STATES.

THE Superintendent of the census has recently published (under an act of Congress, passed June 12, 1858) an abstract of the statistics of manufactures gathered in the seventh census, (year 1850.) These statistics are for the year ending June 1, 1850, and include the number of establishments, capital, cost of raw material, number of hands employed, cost of labor and value of products of the manufactories in this country.

On the ground of "better late than never" we are glad to see this compilation, although the length of time since the materials were gathered confines its value to comparison with previous statements; for, in the rapid growth of our country, statistics of ten years ago have no value as positive information of the present. We hope the same summary of statistics from the eighth census will be given in time to secure the purpose of present information as well as future reference. It is on the latter ground, and as showing some curious results, that we publish an abstract of the results, for we can hardly suspect the seventh census of giving anything new or particularly accurate. Its compilation was too consistent with "red tape;" and the unavoidable results of having politics mixed with statistics to obtain either of these essential elements of a proper census, are shown in this new document.

The statistics of manufactures show some curious results. We have culled a few of these, but would repeat the caution, that facts and the figures of the census may not always agree. Taking manufactures in their alphabetical order, we find that first, New-York, and secondly, Pennsylvania, have the largest manufactures of agricultural implements, and together manufacture one-third of the total product of nearly seven millions of

dollars. Artificial flowers are manufactured almost entirely in New-York. Ashes come four-fifths from New-York and Ohio. Bagging and cordage are mainly manufactured in Kentucky, New-York and Massachusetts. Bakeries are generally in the order of the trade and population of a State, except in Maryland, which has about 10 per cent. of the total, and ranks fourth, or next to Pennsylvania. The singularity with blacksmiths is in liking California, almost eight per cent. of the total being there, and that State ranking third on the list. Ninety per cent. of the bonnets are made in New-York—Pennsylvania making the balance. Three-fourths of the boots and shoes are from New-England, and one-half from Massachusetts. Breweries and bricks are in New-York and Pennsylvania greatly in excess of their proportionate population. Buttons are over one-half from Connecticut. Calicoes are mainly a product of Rhode Island and Massachusetts. The manufacture of rail-road cars is the first article in which the West makes its appearance as a large manufacturer; Indiana manufactures almost one-eighth of the total. In cement we find that New-York and New-Jersey are the only States showing any considerable production. Charcoal is mainly a New-Jersey product. Chemicals and clothing chiefly come from New-York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Maryland and Ohio. Carriages are made by New-York, Ohio, Connecticut, Pennsylvania and New-Jersey in about equally relative quantities. The number of carriages vary, however, much; Ohio has more than double any other State, but at a less cost for each. Coal is put down almost exclusively to Pennsylvania, erroneously leaving Illinois, Maryland and Ohio out. In copper and brass Connecticut is first. In cotton manufactures Massachusetts has one-third, New-Hampshire one-eighth, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania and New-York one-eleventh, and Connecticut one-sixteenth of the total. Maine and Maryland have each over two millions of dollars; Virginia, New-Jersey and Georgia over one million of dollars in annual production. Cotton and wool mixed are nine-tenths from Pennsylvania. Cutlery, against common belief, is manufactured almost in proportion to the general manufacturing business of each State. Glass is from Pennsylvania first; Massachusetts and New-Jersey next; and New-York fourth. Hardware is from Connecticut and New-York mainly. Hats and caps are from New-York first; then New-Jersey; and Pennsylvania, Connecticut and Massachusetts next. Half of the hosiery is from Pennsylvania. India rubber goods come from Connecticut, New-Jersey and New-York. Rough iron comes from Pennsylvania; the finer manufactures from New-York. Lead is from Wisconsin and Illinois. Lumber is from New-York, Pennsylvania, Maine and Ohio in their order. Millinery is from New-York. Millstones are from Ohio. Castor oil is manufactured four-fifths from Missouri, and hence we suppose the name of the people. Music dwells in New-York according to the census. Nails come mainly from Massachusetts. Lard oil from Ohio. Whale oil nine-tenths from Massachusetts and New-York as commercial centres, and one-tenth from New-Jersey. Paper is first from Massachusetts; then Connecticut and New-York; and fourth from Pennsylvania. Perfumes are two-thirds from Pennsylvania, New-York having only one-sixth of the production. Pork and beef is first from Ohio; then Indiana; then New-York, Kentucky and Missouri equally. Illinois, now high in rank, in 1850 had only three per cent. of the total. Delaware leads in gunpowder, Connecticut second, and New-York and Massachusetts next. New-York has half the printing and book-

selling, and Massachusetts and Pennsylvania one-eighth each. Sails are one-third from Massachusetts. Salt is one-half from New-York. Scales are one-half from Vermont. New-York leads in ship and boat building, Massachusetts, Maine and Maryland following in their order. Stoves are one-third from New-York. Refined sugar one-half from the same State, Missouri, Massachusetts and Pennsylvania ranking each about one-eighth. Tanneries are two-thirds in New-York, Pennsylvania and Massachusetts. Manufactured tobacco is over one-third from Virginia, and one-tenth from New-York, Pennsylvania and Kentucky each. New-Jersey leads in trunks and carpet bags. North Carolina has three-fourths of the turpentine. Pennsylvania is first in wigs and curls, and, with Massachusetts, manufactures three-fourths of the whips. White lead is from New-York. Locksmiths from Pennsylvania. New-York and Massachusetts produce two-thirds of the wire. Two-thirds of the wooden ware come from New-Hampshire and Massachusetts. In woollens we find that Massachusetts has one-third and New-York one-fifth. Generally, New-York is the largest manufacturer, and the cases to the contrary are so rare that we give a list of them:

		Proportion.
Vermont,	Scales,	40 per cent.
Massachusetts,	Bonnets and Straw Hats,	85 "
"	Paper,	25 "
"	Boots and Shoes,	46 "
"	Cottons,	33 "
"	Nails,	30 "
"	Woollens,	25 "
Connecticut,	Guns,	33 "
"	Hardware,	33 "
"	India Rubber Goods,	40 "
Rhode Island,	Calico,	40 "
New-Jersey,	Trunks,	20 "
Pennsylvania,	Coal,	80 "
"	Cotton and Wool, mixed,	95 "
"	Glass,	25 "
"	Hosiery,	50 "
"	Iron,	33 "
"	Perfumes,	90 "
California,	Gold,	90 "
Delaware,	Gunpowder,	25 "
Virginia,	Tobacco,	40 "
North Carolina,	Turpentine,	90 "
Missouri,	Castor Oil,	75 "
Kentucky,	Bagging and Hemp,	30 "
Ohio,	Lard Oil,	60 "
"	Provisions,	30 "
Wisconsin,	Lead,	50 "

The order in which the States rank as manufacturers is New-York, twenty-three per cent.; Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, fifteen per cent.; Connecticut, five per cent.; New-Jersey, four per cent.; Maryland, three per cent.; Virginia, three per cent.; Rhode Island, New-Hampshire, Missouri, Maine and Kentucky, over two per cent. each; Indiana and Illinois, one and a half each; or the fifteen States have eighty-six per cent., leaving to the other twenty-one States and territories only fourteen per cent. of the total manufactures. See the following tables:

GENERAL SUMMARY OF MANUFACTURES IN THE UNITED STATES.

MANUFACTURES.	*No. of Establishments.*	*Capital.*	*Cost of raw material.*	*Male hands.*	*Female hands.*	*Cost of labor.*	*Value of product.*
Agricultural implements,....	1,333	$ 3,564,202	$ 2,445,765	7,211	1	$ 2,167,868	$ 6,842,611
Asherics,.....	569	485,760	812,190	1,020	4	243,672	1,401,533
Bagging, Rope and Cordage,	417	3,341,506	5,612,247	5,258	799	1,192,788	8,002,898
Bakers,.....	2,027	3,390,824	8,367,870	6,351	376	1,960,416	13,294,229
Blacksmiths,.....	10,373	5,884,149	5,111,388	24,983	19	6,508,682	16,048,586
Bonnets, Straw Braid, &c.,...	68	336,850	932,674	306	3,468	592,824	1,687,248
Bookbinders & Blank Books,	235	1,063,700	1,560,330	1,778	1,690	901,404	3,225,678
Boots and Shoes,.....	11,305	12,924,919	23,848,374	72,305	32,949	21,622,608	58,967,406
Boxes, packing,.....	206	355,156	500,470	878	18	286,500	1,058,741
Brass Foundries,.....	148	1,585,090	2,112,592	1,666	12	591,672	3,625,618
Breweries,.....	431	4,072,380	3,055,266	2,886	11	654,144	5,728,569
Bricks,.....	1,603	4,367,912	1,474,028	16,726	619	4,235,068	6,610,731
Britannia and Plated Ware,..	91	592,150	760,978	1,120	156	414,140	1,585,765
Brushes,.....	146	710,800	688,359	1,500	905	583,460	1,573,579
Cabinet Ware,.....	4,242	7,308,356	6,089,546	20,997	1,018	6,688,568	17,663,054
Calico Printers,.....	42	3,922,800	10,462,044	3,351	729	1,088,904	13,680,805
Carpenters and Builders,....	2,790	3,289,308	7,011,930	15,276	6	5,599,320	16,686,819
Carpets,.....	116	3,852,981	3,075,592	3,881	2,305	1,246,560	5,402,684
Cars, rail-road,.....	41	896,015	1,393,676	1,554	..	664,708	2,493,558
Chandlers,.....	487	4,145,400	7,006,767	2,660	156	775,800	10,199,730
Chemicals,.....	170	2,335,715	3,235,380	1,335	54	422,560	4,979,630
Clocks,.....	28	490,800	456,334	777	28	278,508	1,281,500
Clothiers and Tailors,.....	4,278	12,509,161	25,780,258	35,051	61,500	15,082,340	48,311,709
Coaches and Carriages,.....	1,822	4,973,707	3,955,689	13,983	58	4,268,904	11,073,630
Coal mining,.....	510	8,317,501	246,414	15,112	6	4,069,188	7,173,750
Coffee and Spice,.....	48	488,662	843,254	305	12	99,900	1,240,614
Combs,.....	151	633,637	843,482	1,426	362	494,196	1,615,850
Confectioners,.....	388	1,085,551	1,691,824	1,888	345	458,904	3,040,671
Coopers,.....	2,902	2,333,040	2,644,582	11,900	16	3,201,204	7,126,317
Copper and Brass,.....	175	2,850,981	3,062,661	2,888	2	856,044	4,942,901
Cottons,.....	1,074	76,032,578	37,778,064	35,295	62,661	17,267,112	65,501,687
Cottons & Woollens (mixed,)	108	1,711,720	2,321,986	2,667	1,901	808,752	3,693,781
Cutlery and Edge Tools,.....	401	2,321,895	1,489,462	4,247	28	1,420,844	3,813,241
Distilleries,.....	968	5,409,884	10,543,201	3,985	23	1,069,864	15,770,240
Dyers,.....	46	881,950	754,879	434	26	127,320	1,086,795
Fisheries,.....	1,407	3,962,403	71,517	20,614	424	4,689,188	10,056,163
Flour and Grist Mills,.....	11,891	54,415,581	113,036,698	23,260	50	5,680,164	186,056,786
Furriers,.....	49	1,116,800	643,170	648	430	248,724	1,598,695
Gas,.....	30	6,674,000	503,074	950	2	390,684	1,921,746
Glass,.....	94	3,402,350	1,556,833	5,571	97	2,094,576	4,641,676
Gold Mining,.....	1,015	1,814,012	57,711	4,804	80	3,639,882	9,551,858
Guns,.....	317	577,509	269,673	1,547	..	518,292	1,178,014
Hardware,.....	340	3,589,025	3,015,688	6,149	881	1,978,904	6,957,770
Hats and Caps,.....	1,048	4,427,798	7,100,028	6,974	8,226	3,179,700	14,319,864
Hosiery,.....	85	544,735	415,113	885	1,490	360,336	1,028,102
India Rubber Goods,.....	34	1,455,700	1,608,728	1,010	1,558	597,828	3,024,385
Iron Forges, ...	375	8,517,011	5,888,505	7,698	77	2,810,760	9,002,705
Iron Foundries,.....	1,319	14,722,749	8,584,024	18,988	81	6,279,912	20,111,517
Iron Furnaces,....	404	16,648,360	7,588,118	20,847	207	5,011,800	18,491,898
Iron Manufactures,.....	99	603,800	596,864	1,079	8	409,728	1,425,342
Iron Mining,.....	197	923,775	68,651	2,192	8	590,566	1,217,808
Iron Rolling,.....	64	5,214,700	4,353,150	3,800	20	1,451,748	6,936,061
Lamps,.....	26	486,800	490,862	918	20	290,424	1,060,022
Lead,.....	156	603,196	1,582,585	737	16	181,756	2,150,068
Lime,.....	761	1,124,072	1,106,775	2,884	4	735,746	2,286,242

GENERAL SUMMARY OF MANUFACTURES IN THE UNITED STATES.—(*Continued.*)

MANUFACTURES.	*No. of Establishments.*	*Capital.*	*Cost of raw material.*	*Male hands.*	*Female hands.*	*Cost of labor.*	*Value of product.*
Look. glass & picture frames,	108	$445,240	$544,980	884	79	$347,976	$1,252,746
Lumber, sawing and planing,	17,895	40,088,427	27,593,529	51,766	452	13,022,052	58,520,966
Machinists and Millwrights,..	1,062	19,225,918	11,867,728	27,884	58	9,689,912	27,998,344
Medicines, Drugs & D. Stuffs,	143	1,427,375	1,657,886	693	184	276,488	3,508,465
Milliners,	532	660,193	1,496,866	181	3,688	610,836	2,761,989
Morocco Dressers,	116	1,387,750	2,236,995	1,796	171	623,772	3,861,895
Musical Instruments,	204	1,545,935	698,168	2,807	24	1,054,728	2,580,715
Nails,	87	4,428,498	4,438,976	5,227	4	1,812,972	7,662,144
Oil, Lard,	41	362,950	1,271,602	182	11	58,956	1,617,669
Oil, Linseed,	168	896,650	1,477,645	477	2	143,664	1,948,934
Oil, Whale,	50	2,791,000	6,492,876	492	52	198,468	7,889,980
Oil Cloths,	56	640,700	829,706	648	2	178,854	1,256,994
Paper,	443	7,260,864	5,555,929	3,885	2,950	1,497,792	10,187,177
Patent Leather,	20	592,100	886,495	687	150	262,248	1,366,300
Plumbers,	124	646,225	1,297,119	1,087	3	377,944	2,343,607
Pork and Beef Packing,	185	3,482,500	9,451,096	3,267	9	1,281,586	11,981,642
Potteries,	484	777,544	275,063	2,246	43	607,418	1,466,063
Powder, Gun,	54	1,179,223	860,997	576	3	192,588	1,590,332
Printers and Publishers,	673	5,862,715	4,964,225	6,989	1,279	2,737,306	11,586,549
Rice Mills,	4	210,000	1,209,000	200	..	30,400	1,462,000
Saddles and Harness,	3,515	3,969,379	4,427,006	12,598	360	3,154,008	9,935,474
Sails,	188	266,380	880,414	838	10	349,644	1,654,508
Salt and Salt Refining,	340	2,640,860	1,051,419	2,699	87	758,360	2,177,945
Sash and Blinds,	433	1,066,355	859,827	2,448	49	840,924	2,277,061
Sewing Silk,	27	428,350	848,945	295	554	152,712	1,209,426
Silversmiths, Jewelers, &c.,	563	3,828,170	4,920,619	4,873	389	2,181,296	9,401,765
Ship Building and Boats,	892	5,182,309	7,286,401	12,623	6	5,922,576	16,595,686
Starch,	146	692,675	799,459	666	8	198,224	1,261,468
Stone and Marble Quarries,	1,144	4,082,182	2,475,760	9,996	5	3,431,194	8,180,115
Stoves and Ranges,	230	3,179,475	2,913,943	4,227	..	1,617,274	6,124,748
Sugar Refiners,	28	2,669,000	7,662,685	1,644	12	604,248	9,898,800
Tanners and Curriers,	6,528	20,602,945	22,865,258	22,451	124	5,606,110	37,702,883
Tin and Sheet Iron Works,	2,280	4,129,587	4,805,389	7,865	28	2,363,100	8,933,188
Tobacconists,	1,418	5,008,295	7,841,728	12,261	1,975	2,420,208	13,491,147
Trunks and Carpet Bags,	116	356,660	765,816	1,056	264	386,160	1,558,388
Turners,	440	663,615	407,043	1,624	27	493,020	1,374,449
Turpentine,	856	1,663,692	1,484,318	3,369	68	447,348	2,855,557
Umbrellas,	80	761,760	1,399,607	814	1,762	423,548	2,505,622
Upholsterers,	155	565,635	983,961	804	708	365,580	1,790,653
Wheelwrights,	4,226	3,146,211	1,886,551	11,542	7	3,157,544	6,827,451
White Lead,	51	3,124,800	3,541,072	1,508	..	512,888	5,242,218
Wire and Wire Workers,	83	587,725	584,548	658	18	208,128	1,083,249
Wooden Ware,	197	580,165	436,676	1,328	33	372,132	1,188,078
Wool Carders,	680	789,925	1,251,550	1,071	22	225,972	1,789,476
Woollens, carding & fulling,	1,817	26,071,542	24,912,455	29,919	14,976	7,167,900	39,848,557
Miscellaneous,	564	4,045,370	3,249,944	4,247	742	2,231,378	10,050,504

All manufactures producing less than one million of dollars annually, are omitted. It will be seen by the foregoing table, that there is only one manufacturing interest producing over one hundred millions of dollars; of the second class, producing over fifty millions of dollars, and less than one hundred millions, there are three; of the third class, producing between twenty-five and fifty millions of dollars, there are four; of the fourth class, between ten and twenty-five millions of dollars, there are eighteen kinds; of the fifth class, producing between five and ten millions of dollars, there are twenty-one kinds; of the sixth class, producing between one million and five millions of dollars, there are fifty-four kinds.

CONDENSED TABULAR STATEMENT OF THE AGGREGATES OF MANUFACTURES IN EACH STATE AND TERRITORY.

States and Territories.	*No. of Establishments.*	*Capital.*	*Cost of raw material.*	*Male hands.*	*Female hands.*	*Cost of labor per annum.*	*Value of product.*
Alabama, ...	1,026	$ 3,450,606	$ 2,224,960	4,397	539	$ 1,105,824	$ 4,528,876
Arkansas, ...	261	305,015	215,789	812	30	159,876	587,906
California, ...	1,008	1,006,197	1,201,154	3,964	..	3,717,180	12,862,523
Connecticut, ...	3,737	25,876,648	23,608,971	34,248	16,483	12,435,984	47,114,585
Delaware, ...	531	2,978,945	2,864,607	3,237	651	936,924	4,649,296
Dist. of Columbia, .	408	1,001,575	1,405,871	2,084	586	757,584	2,690,258
Florida, ...	108	547,060	220,611	876	115	199,452	668,335
Georgia, ...	1,522	5,456,488	3,404,917	6,650	1,718	1,709,664	7,082,075
Illinois, ...	3,162	6,217,765	8,959,827	11,066	498	3,204,336	16,534,272
Indiana, ...	4,892	7,750,402	10,869,700	13,748	692	3,728,844	18,725,423
Iowa, ...	522	1,292,875	2,856,881	1,687	20	473,016	3,551,788
Kentucky, ...	3,609	11,810,462	12,165,075	19,576	1,900	5,106,048	21,710,212
Louisiana, ...	1,008	5,082,424	2,459,508	5,458	759	2,083,928	6,779,417
Maine, ...	3,974	14,699,152	13,553,144	21,853	6,167	7,485,568	24,661,057
Maryland, ...	3,725	14,934,450	17,690,886	22,729	7,488	7,408,882	33,043,892
Massachusetts, ...	8,852	88,940,292	85,856,771	107,784	69,677	41,954,736	157,743,994
Michigan, ...	2,083	6,563,660	6,136,828	8,990	354	2,717,124	11,169,002
Mississippi, ...	947	1,815,820	1,275,771	3,046	108	771,528	2,912,068
Missouri, ...	2,923	8,576,607	12,798,351	14,880	928	4,692,648	24,824,418
New-Hampshire, ...	3,211	18,242,114	12,745,466	14,103	12,989	6,123,876	23,164,503
New-Jersey, ...	4,207	22,293,258	22,011,871	29,068	8,762	9,364,740	39,851,256
New-York, ...	23,553	99,904,405	134,655,674	147,737	51,612	49,131,000	237,597,249
North Carolina, ...	2,663	7,456,860	4,602,501	12,473	2,128	2,883,456	9,111,050
Ohio, ...	10,622	29,019,538	34,678,019	47,054	4,437	13,467,156	62,692,279
Pennsylvania, ...	21,605	94,473,810	87,206,377	124,688	22,078	37,163,232	155,044,910
Rhode Island, ...	864	12,935,676	13,186,708	12,923	8,044	5,047,080	22,117,688
South Carolina, ...	1,430	6,053,265	2,787,584	5,992	1,074	1,127,712	7,045,477
Tennessee, ...	2,887	6,527,729	5,166,886	11,080	959	2,247,492	9,725,608
Texas, ...	309	539,290	394,642	1,042	24	322,368	1,168,583
Vermont, ...	1,849	5,001,877	4,172,552	6,894	1,551	2,202,348	8,570,920
Virginia, ...	4,740	18,109,143	18,101,131	25,790	3,320	5,434,476	29,602,507
Wisconsin, ...	1,262	3,382,148	5,414,931	5,798	291	1,712,496	9,293,068
Minnesota, ...	5	94,000	24,300	63	..	18,540	58,300
New-Mexico, ...	23	63,300	110,220	81	..	20,772	249,010
Oregon, ...	52	843,600	809,560	285	..	388,620	2,236,640
Utah, ...	14	44,400	337,381	51	..	9,984	291,220
Aggregate, ...	128,025	$ 583,245,351	$ 555,123,892	731,137	225,922	$ 236,755,464	$ 1,019,106,616

RATES OF TOLL ON THE NEW-YORK CANALS, 1861.

Established by the Canal Board, on persons and property transported on the New-York State Canals, to take effect on the opening of Navigation.

Toll is to be computed upon the weight ("1,000 *pounds per mile*") *of all articles contained in the following list, unless otherwise stated, opposite to the article excepted:*

	cts.	m.	fr.
Articles not enumerated going towards tide water,	0	2	5
Agricultural productions of the United States, not particularly specified,	0	2	5
Apples,	0	2	0
Ashes, pot and pearl,	0	2	0
Ashes, leached,	0	0	5
Bacon,	0	1	0
Barley,	0	3	0
Barrels, empty, transported in boats,	0	1	0
Barrels, empty, transported in rafts,	0	5	0
Bars of iron,	0	2	0
Barytes,	0	3	0
Beans,	0	2	5
Bed plates for steam engines, (cast iron,)	0	2	0
Bedstead stuff, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Beef, salted,	0	2	0
Bloom iron,	0	2	0
Boat knees, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Boats propelled by steam, having preference at the locks over other boats, per mile,	4	0	0
Boats in tow of such steamboat, not exceeding four, and having such preference, per mile,	4	0	0
Boats not propelled by steam, or in tow, and having such preference, per mile,	4	0	0
Boats *used chiefly* for the transportation of passengers upon *all canals*, per mile,	4	0	0
On the same, if they elect to commute for tolls upon passengers,	3	0	0
Boats *used chiefly* for the transportation of property, per mile,	2	0	0
On the same, if they elect to commute for tolls upon passengers,	2	3	0
Bolts, staves, if carried in boats,	0	1	5
Bolts, staves, if carried in rafts,	0	5	0
Bones for manure,	0	1	0
Bones other than for manure,	0	2	0
Boxes, stuff for, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Bran,	0	2	0
Brick,	0	1	0
Broom handles, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Brush backs, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Brush handles, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Buffalo skins,	0	5	0
Butter,	0	2	0
Butts, stave, if carried in boats,	0	1	5
Butts, stave, if carried in rafts,	0	5	0
Cabinet ware,	0	4	0
Carts,	0	4	0
Car axles,	0	3	0
Car wheels, (iron,)	0	3	0
Carriages and sleighs,	0	4	0
Casks, empty, transported in boats,	0	1	0
Casks, empty, transported in rafts,	0	5	0

	cts.	m.	fr.
Castings, all iron castings, except machines and the parts thereof,	0	3	0
Castings, broken,	0	2	0
Cattle, live,	0	2	0
Cedar posts, (see *Lumber, No.* 2,) per 1,000 feet, per mile,	0	5	6
Cedar, red, (see *Lumber, No.* 2,) per 1,000 feet, per mile,	0	5	6
Cement, fire-proof,	0	2	0
Cement, hydraulic,	0	2	0
Chairs, new,	0	4	0
Chair stuff, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Charcoal,	0	0	5
Cheese,	0	2	0
Clay,	0	1	0
Clover seed,	0	4	0
Coal, mineral,	0	1	0
Coal, bituminous, going towards and carried to tide-water,	0	0	5
Coal oil,	0	1	0
Coffee,	0	2	0
Copper ore,	0	0	5
Copper, pig and smelted,	0	1	0
Corn,	0	2	5
Corn meal,	0	2	5
Cotton,	0	1	0
Crockery,	0	2	0
Deer skins,	0	5	0
Demijohns,	0	4	0
Domestic distilled spirits,	0	2	0
Domestic cottons,	0	2	0
Domestic woollens,	0	2	0
Dried fruit,	0	4	0
Drilled barrows,	0	4	0
Earth,	0	1	0
Esculent roots,	0	1	0
Enamelled ware, flint,	0	2	0
Fanning mills	0	4	0
Felloes, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Fire-proof cement,	0	2	0
Fire brick,	0	1	0
Flax seed,	0	2	0
Flint enamelled ware,	0	2	0
Flour,	0	2	5
Furniture, new; cabinet ware, chairs, looking-glasses, willow-ware, mattresses and piano-fortes,	0	4	0
Furniture for stoves, not cast iron,	0	6	0
Furs, and skins of animals producing furs,	1	0	0
Gas pipes,	0	2	0
Glass ware,	0	2	0
Grass seed,	0	4	0
Grease,	0	1	5
Gun stocks, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Gypsum, the product of this State,	0	1	0
Gypsum, foreign and product of other States,	0	3	0
Handspikes, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Harrows,	0	4	0
Hay, pressed,	0	1	0
Heading, undressed, transported in boats,	0	1	0
Heading, dressed or partly dressed,	0	1	5
Heading, transported in rafts,	0	5	0
Hemp, going towards tide-water,	0	1	0
Hides, green, of domestic animals of the United States,	0	3	0
Hides, raw, imported, of domestic and other animals,	0	3	0

	cts.	m.	fr.
Hogs, live,	0	2	0
Hops,	0	2	0
Hop poles, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Hoop poles, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Horses,	0	3	0
Horses, used exclusively for towing boats and other floats, exempt from toll.			
Horse shoes,	0	2	0
Hubs, (see *Lumber No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Hydraulic cement,	0	2	0
Ice,	0	1	0
Iron in sheets, bars or bundles,	0	2	0
Iron ore,	0	1	0
Iron, bloom, scrap and pig,	0	2	0
Iron, boiler,	0	2	0
Iron, bridge and railing,	0	2	0
Iron bolts,	0	2	0
Iron safes,	0	2	0
Junk,	0	3	0
Lard,	0	1	5
Lard oil,	0	1	5
Lath, (see *Lumber, No.* 1,)	0	2	0
Lath, (see *Lumber, No.* 2,) per 1,000 feet per mile, surface measure,	0	5	6
Lath, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Lead, pig, going towards tide-water,	0	0	5
Lead, bar, going towards tide-water,	0	0	5
Leather, manufactured,	0	2	0
Lime, manufactured,	0	1	5
Lime water,	0	1	5
Limestone,	0	1	0
Looking glasses,	0	4	0
Looking glass backs, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
LUMBER, No. 1.			
Transported in boats by weight, per 1,000 *pounds per mile:*			
White pine, white wood, cherry, bass wood, cedar, boards, planks, scantling, and on all sidings, lath and other sawed stuff, less than one inch thick, (except such as is enumerated in *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Oak, hickory, beech, sycamore, black walnut, butternut, maple, ash, fir, elm, tamarack, yew and spruce,	0	1	5
Hemlock,	0	0	6
LUMBER, No. 2.			
Transported in boats by measurement, per 1,000 *feet per mile:*			
Boards, planks, scantling and sawed timber, reduced to inch measurement, and all siding, lath and other sawed stuff, less than one inch thick, (except such as enumerated in *Lumber, No.* 3,) tolls computed on surface measurement, and all kinds of red cedar, cedar posts, estimating that a cord, after deducting for openings, will contain 1,000 feet,	0	5	6
Hemlock, per 1,000 feet per mile, when not weighed,	0	2	5
Lumber, No. 2, transported in rafts, per 1,000 feet per mile,	2	5	0
LUMBER, No. 3.			
Transported in boats by weight, per 1,000 *pounds per mile:*			
Sawed lath of less than ten feet in length, split lath, hoop poles, hand spikes, rowing oars, broom handles, spokes, hubs, tree nails, felloes, boat knees, plane stocks, pickets for fences, stuff—manufactured or partly manufactured—for boxes, chairs and bedsteads, hop poles, brush handles, brush backs, looking-glass backs, gun stocks, plow beams and plow handles,	0	2	0
Sawed stuff for window blinds, not exceeding one-fourth of an inch in thickness, and window sashes and blinds,	0	6	0

	cts.	m.	fr.
Lumber shall not be cleared by measurement when carried in a boat having other articles on board paying toll by *weight;* but such lumber shall, in all cases, be also cleared by weight.			
When a cargo is composed entirely of lumber, which can be cleared by weight or measure, the whole of such cargo shall be cleared by measurement or by weight, as the shipper or master may elect; and in no case shall a portion of any such cargo be cleared by measurement and the other portion by weight.			
Mahogany, (except veneering,) reduced to inch measure, per 1,000 feet per mile,	1	5	0
Manure,	0	1	0
Mattresses,	0	2	0
Mechanics' tools. (See *Tools.*)			
Merchandise, non-enumerated,	0	2	0
Molasses,	0	2	0
Moose skins,	0	5	0
Mowing machines,	0	4	0
Nails,	0	2	0
Oats,	0	2	5
Oil cake,	0	2	0
Oil meal,	0	2	0
Onions,	0	1	0
Passengers, over ten years of age, per mile,	0	0	5
Peas,	0	2	5
Piano-fortes,	0	4	0
Pickets for fences, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Pig copper,	0	1	0
Pig iron,	0	2	0
Plane stocks, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Plaster, calcined,	0	2	0
Plow beams, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Plow castings,	0	2	0
Plow handles, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Plows,	0	4	0
Pork, salted,	0	2	0
Potatoes,	0	2	0
Powder and gunpowder,	0	4	0
Rags,	0	2	0
Rail-road chairs,	0	2	0
Rail-road iron,	0	2	0
Rails for fences, nor exceeding fourteen feet in length, carried in boats, per M. per mile,	2	0	0
On the same, if carried in rafts, per M. per mile,	8	0	0
Reaping machines,	0	4	0
Roots, esculent,	0	1	0
Rowing oars, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Rye,	0	2	5
Salt, foreign,	0	5	0
Salt manufactured in this State,	0	1	0
Sand,	0	1	0
Sawed stuff. (See *Lumber, Nos.* 2 *and* 3.)			
Sawdust,	0	1	0
Scrap iron,	0	2	0
Sheep, live,	0	2	0
Shingles, in boats, per 1,000 pounds, per mile,	0	1	5
Shingles, in boats, per M. per mile,	0	0	5
Shingles, per M., per mile, in rafts,	0	4	0
Ship knees,	0	1	0
Ship knees, transported in rafts,	0	5	0

	cts.	m.	fr.
Ship stuffs,	0	2	0
Shooks, stave,	0	1	5
Shrubbery and trees,	0	4	0
Siding, (see *Lumber No.* 1,)	0	2	0
Siding, (see *Lumber No.* 2,) per 1,000 feet, surface measure,	0	5	6
Skins of animals producing furs,	1	0	0
Slate,	0	1	0
Sleighs,	0	4	0
Soda ash,	0	1	0
Spikes,	0	2	0
Split posts, not exceeding ten feet in length, carried in boats, per M. per mile,	2	0	0
On the same, if carried in rafts, per M. per mile,	8	0	0
Spokes, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Staves, cut, dressed or partly dressed, and stave bolts and butts, transported in boats,	0	1	5
Staves, undressed,	0	1	0
Stave and stave bolts and butts, transported in rafts,	0	5	0
Steel,	0	2	0
Stone for the manufacture of lime,	0	1	0
Stone, wrought,	0	1	5
Stone, unwrought and partly wrought,	0	1	0
Stove furniture, not cast iron,	0	6	0
Stove pipe,	0	6	0
Stoves,	0	3	0
Straw, pressed,	0	1	0
Sugar,	0	2	0
Tallow,	0	1	5
Tan bark, per cord, per mile, carried in boats,	0	5	0
Tan bark, per cord, per mile, carried in rafts,	2	0	0
Tan bark, ground, per 1,000 pounds, per mile,	0	2	5
Tar,	0	2	0
Threshing machines,	0	4	0
Tile for roofing,	0	4	0
Timber, per 100 cubic feet, per mile, transported in boats:			
Squared and round,	0	6	0
Squared and round, transported in rafts,	1	0	0
On the same, if cleared after the first of June, and arriving at tide-water before the 15th of August, inclusive, per 100 cubic feet, per mile,	0	7	0
Sawed timber, (see *Lumber, No.* 2,) per 1,000 feet per mile,	0	5	6
Tobacco, unmanufactured, going towards tide-water,	0	1	0
Tobacco, going from tide-water,	0	2	0
Tools, mechanics',	0	2	0
Treenails, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	2	0
Trees and shrubbery,	0	4	0
Turnips,	0	1	0
Turpentine,	0	2	0
Varnish,	0	2	0
Wagons,	0	4	0
Ware, flint,	0	2	0
Water, lime,	0	1	5
Water pipes,	0	2	0
Wheat,	0	2	5
Willow ware,	0	4	0
Window blinds, and sawed stuff for, (see *Lumber, No.* 3,)	0	6	0
Window sashes,	0	6	0
Wood for fuel, per cord, per mile,	0	5	0
Wood for fuel, per cord, per mile, carried in rafts,	2	0	0
Wood used in the manufacture of salt, exempt from toll.			
Wool,	0	2	0

COMPARATIVE PRICES OF LEADING ARTICLES IN THE NEW-YORK MARKET,

ON THE 1ST OF MAY, IN EACH YEAR, FROM 1849 TO 1861.—(*From the New-York Journal of Commerce.*)

ARTICLES.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Breadstuffs—													
Wheat flour, State,.....bbl.	$4 81	$5 25	$4 81	$4 18	$4 62	$7 62½	$9 81¼	$5 50	$6 00	$4 25	$5 50	$5 50	$5 20
Rye flour, fine,..... "	2 81	2 87	3 50	3 31	3 81	4 75	6 75	3 25	3 50	3 40	3 75	3 50	3 10
Corn meal, Jersey,..... "	2 75	2 81	3 12	3 25	3 00	3 75	5 25	3 12½	3 25	3 50	3 90	3 80	2 85
Wheat, prime white,...bush.	1 25	1 33	1 14	1 11	1 28	2 31	2 80	1 80	1 85	1 35	1 70	1 65	1 65
Rye,..... "	57	59	73	77	90	1 12	1 50	78	90	66	84	84	68
Oats, State,..... "	36	41	45	39	46	56	81	40	58	46	54	43	36
Corn, yellow,..... "	59	61	64	64	67	85	1 13	62	80	73	86	82	67
Candles—													
Mould,.....lb.	11½	12	12	13	12	16	14½	14	14	10½	20½	17	17
Sperm,..... "	34	42	43	40	32	30	29	40	42	39	40	38	32
Coal—Anthracite,.....ton,	5 50	5 50	5 00	5 50	5 00	6 00	6 00	5 50	5 25	4 25	5 00	5 00	4 75
Coffee—													
Brazil,..... .....lb.	6½	8¾	9¾	9½	9½	10¾	10½	11¼	11	10½	12	13½	13
Java,..... "	8½	11	12½	11¼	11½	14¼	14	14½	15¼	13	15	15½	17
Cotton—Mid. up,..... "	6¾	12	11	8⅞	10½	9¾	9½	10¾	14¼	12¾	12	11½	13¾
Fish—													
Dry cod.....qtl.	2 62	2 81	2 75	4 18	3 25	3 62½	3 87½	4 00	3 75	3 37½	4 00	4 87½	3 75
Mackerel, No. 1 Mass,..keg,	9 87	11 62	10 25	11 00	12 50	16 50	20 00	20 75	21 00	13 75	16 25	17 25	14 50
Fruit—													
M. R. Raisins,.....box,	1 47	2 75	2 12	1 65	2 77	2 80	2 42	3 25	4 75	2 50	2 90	2 85	1 55
Dried apples,.....lb.	....	10	4	6¼	4½	6	6¾	9	10½	6	8½	5	3½
Hay,.....hundred,	47	65	60	75	1 00	75	1 12½	80	75	45	75	95	80
Hops,.....lb.	8	17	25	29	20	30	19	9	10	8	18	10	16
Indigo—Manilla,..... "	72	70	75	70	80	80	85	75	75	75	75	75	60
Iron—													
Scotch pig.....ton,	26 75	30 50	31 00	30 00	35 00	40 00	27 50	32 00	36 00	25 50	25 00	24 00	21 00
Common English bar,... "	55 00	48 00	36 50	35 00	66 00	76 00	56 00	62 00	60 00	47 00	47 00	40 00	44 00
Laths,.....M.	1 08	1 25	1 65	2 25	1 75	2 25	2 00	1 87½	1 87½	1 18¾	1 45	1 75	1 20
Leather—Hemlock sole,.....lb.	15	16	15	15	17	22	22	26	29	25	26	21	19
Lime—Common Rockland,..bbl.	90	70	80	87	95	1 15	1 00	1 00	90	70	70	70	80
Liquors—Cognac brandy,...gall.	2 25	2 10	2 25	2 00	2 75	3 75	4 70	5 00	5 50	4 25	4 00	3 00	3 20
Domestic whiskey,..... "	23¼	24	28	20½	28	26½	37	28½	29	21	25	22½	18
Molasses—													
New-Orleans,.....gall.	28½	26	31	29	28	24	23	47	75	35	39	49	32
Muscovado,..... "	23½	23	25	24	25	26	26	36	62	30	31	30	22
Cardenas,..... "	19½	18½	20	19	22	20	23	30	54	24	25	27	17

Naval Stores—													
Spirits turpentine,.....gall.	34	32	37	49	65	61	44	40	48	49½	53	47	80
Rosin, common,.....bbl.	95	1 08	1 25	1 25	1 40	1 70	1 70	1 67½	1 90	1 52½	1 70	1 57½	1 85
Oils—													
Whale, crude,.....gall.	36	43	43	75	52	57	66	75	78	56	50	42	40
Whale, manufactured,... "	49	56	52	90	68	67	75	86	88	63	60	55	57
Sperm, crude,..... "	1 04	1 16	1 29	1 25	1 28	1 58	1 79	1 80	1 45	1 22	1 40	1 80	1 87
Sperm, manufactured,... "	1 12	1 20	1 27	1 81	1 85	1 60	2 05	2 05	1 55	1 35	1 45	1 45	1 60
Linseed,..... "	58	78	74	63	61	92	84½	75	90	68	63	60	58
Provisions—													
Pork, mess,.....bbl.	10 06	10 25	15 00	18 75	15 75	14 50	17 87½	19 00	23 00	18 75	16 85	17 75	17 87
Pork, prime,..... "	8 25	8 50	18 00	16 75	18 87	18 25	14 87½	15 50	18 90	15 25	12 75	14 25	18 25
Beef, mess, country,..... "	12 12	9 25	9 75	10 00	10 00	11 00	11 00	8 50	18 50	11 50	8 25	5 25	6 00
Beef, prime,..... "	8 25	6 00	5 50	6 00	5 75	7 25	8 50	8 00	11 25	8 50	6 50	4 25	4 25
Pickled hams,.....lb.	5¾	6¾	9	9¾	9½	8¼	9½	9½	11	10	9½	9½	8½
Pickled shoulders,..... "	4	3½	6¾	8	6¼	6	7¼	7½	9	7¼	6½	7¼	6½
Lard,..... "	6¼	6¾	9¾	10	9¾	10	10¼	10	14¼	11½	11½	11¼	9½
Butter, State,..... "	17	18	16	22	20	25	26	20	27	25	22½	18	16
Cheese,..... "	6½	7¾	7	8½	9½	10	11	10	18	8¼	10	10	7
Rice,.....cwt.	3 12	3 50	2 87	3 62	4 37	4 00	6 00	4 25	5 00	4 25	4 00	4 12½	5 75
Salt, Liverpool fine,.....sack,	1 25	1 37	1 40	1 15	1 57	1 70	1 45	1 78	1 45	1 37½	1 50	1 70	1 60
Seeds—Clover,.....lb.	6	6½	9	6¼	10½	8¼	10¼	12	11	7½	8¼	8½	8
Timothy,.....tce.	19 50	18 00	16 00	15 00	16 00	20 00	28 00	24 50	24 50	18 25	15 00	16 00	18 75
Soap—New-York,.....lb.	4¼	5	5	5½	6	7	6	6	6	5	5½	6	5¼
Castile,..... "	10	9¾	9¼	9¾	10½	11½	10½	10¾	11¼	12½	9¼	10	10
Spices—Pepper,..... "	6¾	8	8¾	9¾	11	11	10½	10¾	12¾	9¼	9¾	8¼	8
Nutmegs,..... "	97	1 05	97	87	97	1 17	1 00	92½	85	57½	47½	44	40
Sugars—													
New-Orleans,..... "	4½	4½	5	4¾	5	4¾	5¾	7½	12½	6½	6¾	7	5¾
Cuba,..... "	4½	4¾	5½	4¾	4¾	4½	5½	7	10¾	5½	6¼	6¼	4¾
Refined white,..... "	8¼	8¾	8¾	7¾	8¾	8¾	8¾	10¼	14	9¾	9½	9¼	7¾
Tallow,..... "	8	7	7¼	8¼	9¾	12¼	11¾	10½	11¼	10½	10½	10¼	9
Teas—													
Young Hyson,..... "	48	47	58	55	50	60	48	35	45	35	39	40	50
Souchong,..... "	38	26	24	18	17	30	30	30	40	30	38	33	40
Oolong,..... "	..	35	38	30	29	40	40	40	50	37	43	35	35
Tobacco—													
Kentucky,..... "	6	7	9	7	7	8½	10	12¼	16	12	11	10	9
Manufactured,..... "	18½	18	27	19	20	20	24	28	32	24	20	20	17
Whalebone—Polar,..... "	29	32½	31	51	31	36½	44	62	90	1 00	90	90	75
Wine—Port,.....gall.	1 75	1 15	1 12	1 00	1 25	2 25	2 75	2 50	2 75	2 50	2 50	2 50	3 50
Madeira,..... "	87	1 75	1 70	1 62	1 75	2 50	2 75	2 50	3 00	3 50	3 00	2 00	4 00
Wool—													
Common,.....lb.	30	32	40	26	42	38	30	32	39	25	40	35	32
¾ blood,..... "	38	36	43	31	47	45	37	45	50½	34	50	43	40
Merino,..... "	36	40	47	36	52	50	45	43	56	37	56	55	47
Pulled, No. 1,..... "	27	31	37	27	41	35	24	34	37	22	38	32	23

IMMIGRATION OF THE PORT OF NEW-YORK.

Extracts from the Report of the Commissioners of Emigration, for the year ending December 31, 1860.

Number of Passengers landed at this Port.—The whole number of passengers landed at this port during the year 1860 was 155,371. Of these, 50,209 were citizens, or persons not subject to bonds or commutation, and 105,162 were aliens, for whom commutation was paid, or bonds executed; showing an increase in alien emigrants of 25,840 more than in 1859, and 26,573 more than in 1858, but being 78,611 less than in the year 1857, and 37,180 less than 1856, whilst the proportion to the average of former years, since 1847, is much less than half. Of these emigrants, 47,330 were from Ireland, 37,899 from Germany, 11,361 from England, and 8,572 from other countries.

Emigrant Refuge and Hospital, Ward's Island.—The commissioners hold in fee one hundred and six acres on Ward's Island, together with appurtenant water-rights and marsh partly covered with water. These lands were purchased, as stated in former reports, from time to time, at prices much less than that for which adjoining lands are now sold, and were paid for either from the annual income or from funds obtained on mortgage, with which debt the property, greatly increased in value in itself, as well as by the buildings and other improvements, is still encumbered.

Landing-place for Emigrant Passengers at Castle Garden.—The establishment at Castle Garden, for the exclusive landing-place of emigrants, under the authority of the act of 1855, for the protection of emigrants, has now had its utility confirmed by the experience of a fifth year. The able and efficient superintendent, JOHN A. KENNEDY, who first organized this department, and to whom we are indebted for much of its usefulness, continued to discharge the duties of this station until June last, when he resigned on accepting the appointment of superintendent-general of the police of the metropolitan district. The duties of his station have been transferred to the secretary and general agent, by whom they have since been efficiently performed. It may be observed, that the combination of these duties with others of the general agent is now made more practical by the removal of all the offices of the commission in the city to Castle Garden.

Marine Hospital, Seguine's Point.—About fifty acres of land, at Seguine's Point, had been purchased in 1858, with a view to the purposes of a marine hospital for pestilential or infectious diseases, by the former commissioners for the removal of Quarantine. It had been abandoned as to those objects, from various causes which have been stated to the legislature, but remained under the charge of this board; the legal title, as in respect to the other real estate held by them, being vested in the Commissioners of Emigration in trust for the people of the State of New-York. The property having been purchased for the

purposes of Quarantine, and paid for from an appropriation from the State treasury, it seemed perfectly proper to apply whatever sum could be raised, by sale or mortgage, to the support of the present floating hospital.

Operations of the Emigrant Landing Dépôt during the past year.—The total number landed, including those not subject to bonds or commutation, was 108,682, against 85,602 in 1859, and 84,226 in 1858. The avowed destination of the passengers will be found on page 296. These passengers arrived from 14 different ports, in 582 vessels, as is shown by table at the foot of this page. Table on page 297 exhibits the relative proportion of steam and sailing vessels bringing these passengers, and a comparative statement of the same for the four preceding years. As an evidence of the favor with which the application of steam vessels to this branch of the passenger trade continues to be received, the number of steamers landing passengers at the dépôt has increased from 22, bringing 5,111 passengers, in 1856, to 109, bringing 34,247, in 1860; and which latter would undoubtedly have been larger, were it not for the partial suspension of one of the foreign lines, which stopped running towards the close of the year. The relative proportion of passengers in steamers, as compared with sailing vessels, is even more marked than in 1859; for, while in that year the average number brought by steamers was $230\frac{88}{105}$, against $184\frac{11}{13}$, showing a difference in favor of the former of 49 passengers, the average number brought by steamers last year was $314\frac{31}{105}$, against $199\frac{11}{13}$ by sailing vessels, showing a difference in favor of the steamers of 115 passengers per vessel.

The Ports whence Emigrant Passenger Vessels have arrived, together with the nationality and number of Vessels, and number of Emigrant Passengers and others from each Port, landed at Castle Garden during the Year 1860.

Port whence sailed.	Nation.	Number of Vessels.	Number of Bondable Passengers.	Number who have returned to the U. S.	Total Passengers.
Liverpool, England,....	Gt. Britain,	213	54,832	4,122	58,954
London, " ...	"	47	3,204	450	3,654
Bristol, " ...	"	1	81	11	92
Glasgow, Scotland,....	"	9	231	60	291
Galway, Ireland,.....	"	11	4,305	223	4,528
Havre,.....	France,	54	11,470	513	11,983
Rotterdam,.....	Holland,	9	212	5	217
Bremen,.....	Bremen,	71	14,884	544	15,428
Hamburg,.....	Hamburg,	48	11,554	1,063	12,617
Antwerp,.....	Belgium,	14	625	30	655
Guthenberg,.....	Sweden,	2	135	....	135
Genoa, Italy,.....	Sardinia,	1	94	5	99
Leghorn,.....	Tuscany,	1	13	5	18
Porto Cabello,.....	Venezuela,	1	10	1	11
		482	101,650	7,032	108,682

Number and Destination of Passengers arrived at New-York during the Year 1860. *States where Emigrants said they intended to go.*

States where bound.	*Number of Emigrants going to each of the different States.*	States where bound.	*Number of Emigrants going to each of the different States.*
Canada West,	1,872	Wisconsin,	2,589
California,	1,141	Alabama,	45
Connecticut,	2,579	Arkansas,	21
Delaware,	123	Australia,	1
District of Columbia,	301	Bermuda,	1
Illinois,	4,077	Canada East,	5
Indiana,	1,106	Central America,	8
Iowa,	776	Cuba,	29
Kentucky,	650	Florida,	17
Louisiana,	321	Georgia,	178
Massachusetts,	6,371	Kansas,	92
Michigan,	1,478	Mexico,	9
Maryland,	1,014	Nebraska,	46
Maine,	142	New-Brunswick,	42
Minnesota,	466	New-Mexico,	1
Missouri,	1,614	Nova Scotia,	21
Mississippi,	15	Oregon,	13
New-Hampshire,	123	Prince Edward's Island,	1
New-Jersey,	3,414	South America,	18
New-York,	56,131	Sandwich Islands,	1
North Carolina,	43	Utah,	905
Ohio,	5,195	Vancouver's Island,	3
Pennsylvania,	9,512	West Indies,	9
Rhode Island,	1,291		
South Carolina,	296	Uncertain,	214
Tennessee,	209	Unknown,	3,368
Texas,	63		
Virginia,	452	Total,	108,682
Vermont,	270		

Number and Nativity of Alien Passengers arrived at the port of New-York during the year 1860, *who were liable to Bonds or Commutation, under the Acts of April* 11, 1849, *July* 11, 1851, *and April* 13, 1853:

From Ireland,	47,330	From Poland,	80
" Germany,	37,899	" Belgium,	76
" England,	11,361	" Russia,	61
" Scotland,	1,617	" Norway,	53
" France,	1,549	" Canada,	25
" Switzerland,	1,422	" Nova Scotia,	23
" Wales,	811	" Mexico,	22
" Italy,	542	" Portugal,	19
" West Indies,	523	" China,	13
" Denmark,	495	" Sicily,	4
" Holland,	440	" East Indies,	4
" Sweden,	361	" Turkey,	3
" Spain,	228	" Greece,	2
" South America,	110		
" Sardinia,	89	Total,	105,162

Showing the relative proportion of Sailing and Steam Vessels bringing Passengers which were landed at Castle Garden during the year 1860.

1860.	SAILING VESSELS.		STEAM VESSELS.		TOTAL.		STEAMERS UNDER THE FLAG OF					
	Vessels.	Passengers.	Steamers.	Passengers.	Vessels.	Passengers.	United States.	Great Britain.	Bremen.	Hamburg.	Belgium.	France.
January,.....	14	1,509	6	558	20	2,067	..	4	1	1	..	..
February,....	7	597	8	953	15	1,550	..	7	..	1	..	..
March,.....	26	2,084	8	1,756	34	3,840	..	6	1	1	..	..
April,.....	22	3,896	7	3,184	29	7,030	..	5	..	2	..	..
May,.....	63	17,700	11	5,998	74	23,698	1	6	1	3	..	..
June,.....	26	8,780	8	3,514	34	12,294	1	5	1	1	..	..
July,.....	36	9,153	14	4,174	50	13,327	1	9	1	3	..	..
August,.....	35	6,399	10	2,419	45	8,818	1	7	1	1	..	..
September,..	35	6,478	9	3,769	44	10,247	1	5	1	2	..	..
October,.....	51	8,591	8	3,165	59	11,756	1	4	1	2	..	..
November,..	31	5,604	10	3,020	41	8,624	..	7	1	2	..	..
December,...	27	3,644	10	1,787	37	5,431	..	7	1	2	..	..
Total, 1860,	373	74,435	109	34,247	482	108,682	6	72	10	21	..	..
Total, 1859,	332	61,384	105	24,218	437	85,602	13	58	15	19	..	..
Total, 1858,	367	67,837	84	16,389	451	84,226	14	47	6	17	..	..
Total, 1857,	588	164,650	69	20,236	657	185,186	3	48	1	10	7	..
Total, 1856,	552	136,459	22	5,111	574	141,570	..	12	..	7	2	1

THE NUMBER OF STEAMERS FROM DOMESTIC PORTS FOR THE YEAR IS AS FOLLOWS:

Where from.	1859.		1860.
New-Orleans,.....	..	....	2
Savannah,.....	159	....	168
Charleston,.....	101	....	104
Richmond and Norfolk,.....	106	....	190
Washington, D. C.,.....	17	....	53
Baltimore,.....	135	....	334
Philadelphia, *via* Sandy Hook and *via* Canal,.	..	....	667
Portland,.....	62	....	93
New-Bedford,.....	156	....	172
Providence,.....	385	....	410
New-London,.....	104	....	53
Wilmington, N. C.,.....	..	....	15
Total,.....	1,485	....	2,261

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT—ARRIVALS AND PASSENGERS.

Year.	*Foreign Arrivals.*		*Passengers, Foreign.*		*Passengers from California.*
1850,.....	3,487	....	226,287	....	....
1851,.....	3,888	....	299,081	....	18,207
1852,.....	3,822	....	310,335	....	12,158
1853,.....	4,105	....	299,425	....	15,517
1854,.....	4,173	....	331,809	....	15,929
1855,.....	3,391	....	152,234	....	13,400
1856,.....	3,869	....	159,284	....	11,925
1857,.....	3,902	....	203,499	....	11,265
1858,.....	3,483	....	97,632	....	8,860
1859,.....	4,027	....	101,320	....	16,249
1860,.....	4,451	....	266,627	....	10,710

Arrivals at this Port, from Foreign Ports, during the year 1860.

Vessels.	1858.		1859.		1860.
Steamers,	213	....	268	....	319
Foreign war steamers,	....	....	....	....	2
Corvettes,	....	....	....	....	1
Ships,	723	....	813	....	797
Barks,	723	....	872	....	978
Barkentines,	....	....	18	....	20
Brigs,	1,085	....	1,269	....	1,335
Galliots,	....	....	....	....	2
Schooners,	735	....	887	....	972
Yachts,	....	....	....	....	1
Canal boats,	....	....	....	....	24
Total,	3,481	....	4,027	....	4,451

Number of Steamers, War Steamers, Corvettes, Ships, Barks, Brigs, Galliots, Schooners, Canal Boats, arrived, of each Nation, at the Port of New-York, in the year 1860.

Nation.	*Steamers.*	*War Steamers.*	*Corvettes.*	*Ships.*	*Barks.*	*Barkentines.*	*Brigs.*	*Galliots.*	*Schooners.*	*Canal Boats.*	*Total.*
American,	155	..	..	..	680	780	18	793	..	847	24	2,952
Austrian,	..	..	..	..	4	6	..	6	..	..	..	16
British,	182	..	..	..	39	114	2	433	..	412	..	1,182
Bremen,	10	..	..	..	26	46	..	17	..	1	..	100
Belgian,	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	2
Brazilian,	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	3
Dutch,	..	..	..	..	1	5	..	16	2	1	..	25
Danish,	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	9	..	1	..	12
French,	..	1	..	..	1	8	..	8	..	2	..	20
Hamburg,	21	..	..	..	22	8	..	2	..	1	..	54
Hanoverian,	..	..	..	..	2	4	..	..	..	..	..	6
Italian,	..	..	..	..	..	5	..	1	..	..	..	6
Mecklenberg,	..	..	..	..	..	3	..	3	..	..	..	6
Mexican,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
Norwegian,	..	..	..	..	6	18	..	7	..	..	..	26
Neapolitan,	..	..	..	..	..	3	..	5	..	..	..	8
Oldenberg,	..	..	..	..	..	3	..	3	..	1	..	7
Prussian,	..	..	..	..	5	11	..	5	..	..	..	21
Portuguese,	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	4	..	4	..	10
Russian,	..	..	..	..	6	1	..	..	..	2	..	9
Sardinian,	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	2	..	..	..	4
Spanish,	..	1	..	..	2	..	..	4	..	..	..	7
Swedish,	..	..	..	..	1	5	..	1	..	1	..	8
Sicilian,	..	..	..	..	..	3	..	6	..	..	..	14
Tuscan,	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	1
Venezuelian,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1
Totals,	819	2	1	797	973	20	1,835	2	973	24	4,451

THE NEW-YORK CLEARING-HOUSE.

THE following is a condensed statement of the Clearing-House transactions during the year ending October 1, 1860:

1859.	*Exchanges.*	*Balances.*	*Net Deposits & Circulation.*	*Specie.*	*Loans.*
October,.....	$ 577,187,133 83	$ 28,528,219 95	$ 78,086,946	$ 19,493,144	$ 119,887,330
November,.....	576,788,665 61	30,389,954 40	82,301,319	20,228,341	120,118,037
December,.....	593,614,919 04	32,900,586 93	84,657,541	20,046,667	122,187,034
1860.					
January,.....	567,526,638 26	30,876,993 83	86,621,670	19,602,000	125,491,423
February,.....	549,151,039 37	30,427,354 31	85,752,144	19,924,301	124,091,989
March,.....	655,631,812 00	34,871,115 61	89,041,198	23,086,812	125,012,700
April,.....	628,691,971 62	32,711,139 57	92,466,058	22,599,132	130,606,731
May,.....	676,084,448 04	34,658,185 74	91,351,186	23,815,746	127,479,520
June,.....	576,663,468 13	33,394,050 74	90,154,741	24,585,457	124,792,271
July,.....	586,218,431 36	30,627,869 89	90,695,047	22,751,694	127,244,241
August,.....	617,169,529 18	32,403,666 52	93,023,374	22,128,189	130,118,247
September,.....	616,220,000 30	28,454,270 88	88,727,833	19,085,130	129,543,926
309 days,.....	$ 7,231,143,056 69	$ 390,698,438 87			
Average per day,	$ 23,401,757 47	$ 999,007 89			

One of the most satisfactory financial features of the year was the resolution adopted in November, 1860, by the banks of the city of New-York, that each shall maintain, after February 1st, 1861, an average specie reserve of twenty-five per cent. of its net liabilities.

At a meeting of the officers of the banks of the city of New-York, at the Merchants' Bank, on Wednesday, the 21st of November, 1860, the following proceedings were unanimously adopted, viz.: In order to enable the banks of the city of New-York to expand their loans and discounts, and also for the purpose of facilitating the settlement of the exchanges between the banks, it is proposed that any bank in the Clearing-House Association may, at its option, deposit with a committee of five persons—to be appointed for that purpose—an amount of its bills receivable; United States stocks, Treasury notes or stocks of the State of New-York, to be approved by said committee, who shall be authorized to issue thereupon to said depositing bank certificates of deposit, bearing interest at seven per cent. per annum, in denominations of five and ten thousand dollars each, as may be desired, to an amount equal to seventy-five per cent. of such deposit. These certificates may be used in the settlement of balances at the Clearing-House for a period of thirty days from the date hereof, and they shall be received by creditor banks, during that period, daily, in the same proportion as they bear to the aggregate amount of the debtor balances paid at the Clearing-House. The interest which may accrue upon these certificates shall, at the expiration of the thirty days, be apportioned among the banks which shall have held them during the time. The securities deposited with said committee as above named shall be held by them in trust as a special deposit, pledged for the re-

demption of the certificates issued thereupon. The committee shall be authorized to exchange any portion of said securities for an equal amount of others, to be approved by them at the request of the depositing bank, and shall have power to demand additional security either by an exchange or an increased amount, at their discretion. The amount of certificates which this committee may issue as above shall not exceed $5,000,000. This agreement shall be binding upon the Clearing-House Association when assented to by three-fourths of its members.

Resolved, That in order to accomplish the purpose set forth in this agreement, the specie belonging to the associated banks shall be considered and treated as a common fund for mutual aid and protection, and the committee shall have power to equalize the same by assessment or otherwise.

For this purpose statements shall be made to the committee of the condition of each bank on the morning of every day before the commencement of business, which shall be sent with the exchanges to the manager of the Clearing-House, specifying the following items, viz.:

1. Loans and discounts. 2. Deposits. 3. Loan certificates. 4. Specie.

Resolved, That after the 1st of February next, every bank in the Clearing-House Association shall have on hand at all times, in specie, an amount equal to one-fourth of its net liabilities, and any bank whose specie shall fall below that proportion shall not make loans or discounts until their position is re-established, and we, as members of the Clearing-House Association, agree that we will not continue to exchange with any bank which shall show by its two successive weekly statements that it has violated this agreement.

The chairman appointed the following named gentlemen as the committee: Moses Taylor, of the City Bank; James Punnett, of the Bank of America; R. W. Howes, of the Park Bank; A. S. Fraser, of the Seventh Ward Bank; Charles P. Leverich, of the Bank of New-York.

John A. Stevens, *Chairman.*

W. T. Hooker, *Secretary.*

The aggregate exchanges of the banks of this city for the year, up to the 1st October last, were a fraction over seven thousand two hundred and thirty-one millions of dollars, or a daily average in excess of twenty-three millions of dollars.

In the year 1856–7, when these exchanges were $8,333,226,718, [see pages 13–14, Chamber of Commerce Report of last year,] or nearly twenty-seven millions per day, the bank reserve of specie in this city was, at various times, under twelve millions of dollars. This slender reserve of specie shows upon what an unreliable basis the banking operations of that year were transacted; leading (as the result proved) to general suspension of payment.

More sound principles have since gained ground in this community, and the recent determination to provide by the banks against similar revulsions from external causes, by maintaining an adequate specie reserve, may be looked upon as one of the most desirable changes of the day.

The importance—even necessity—of this measure (in view of the heavy cash liabilities of the banks) may be seen by reference to the official tabular statement of the banks of this State, [page 291 of this volume.] According to this statement the individual deposits at the

Close of the year 1860 were	$110,000,000
Balances due other banks, &c.,	35,000,000
Circulation,	28,000,000
An aggregate of cash liabilities amounting to	$173,000,000

to meet which there was then on hand an aggregate specie reserve less than twenty-seven millions of dollars, or about fifteen per cent. Of this sum, twenty-four and a half millions were held by the banks of this city, leaving the small sum of $1,830,000 in specie among the two hundred and ninety banks of the interior, to meet cash liabilities exceeding fifty-five millions of dollars. These facts indicate that the country bankers of this State keep a large portion of their reserve fund or unemployed capital on deposit in this city, with which to meet their circulation and the demands for exchange. These deposits are made with the implied understanding that the balances shall be at all times available.

The banks of this city, in pursuance of a resolution adopted in November last, have since reported at the close of the first quarter in the year 1861, a specie reserve of $41,000,000, against cash liabilities of

Individual deposits,	$93,000,000
Balances due other banks,	22,000,000
Circulation,	8,000,000
Total cash liabilities, March, 1861,	$123,000,000

When we consider that New-York city has been, for some years, the commercial and financial centre of the United States; that the domestic exchanges are almost invariably in favor of this city, it is not surprising that the balances held by the banks of this city in favor of the country banks and bankers have increased from ten millions, in 1851, to twenty-nine millions in the year 1860. If to these balances we add the deposits held by individual bankers in this city for account of their country correspondents, the aggregate would reach beyond the sum of fifty millions of dollars, making, with circulation and individual deposits, a total of over one hundred and fifty millions, payable on demand.

To meet the weekly, daily (and, we may say, hourly) drafts of country bankers upon these deposits, it must be considered that our New-York moneyed institutions should maintain, at all times, a large specie reserve, in order to avoid a recurrence of the lamentable revulsions which marked the year 1857 in this city, and of 1860 in other communities. The credit and honor of New-York demand that the large deposits usually made here by the bankers of the thirty-four States should be maintained *intact*, or that an adequate specie basis be invariably maintained in view of the perpetual, and, at times unfavorable, fluctuations of the domestic and foreign exchanges.

We have reason to believe that this financial policy will be hereafter maintained, and that the creditors of our banks and bankers will not again have occasion to complain (as in the year 1857) of speculation and extravagance in this community.

REPORT ON THE HARBOR OF NEW-YORK.

From the Annual Report of the Superintendent of the United States Coast Survey.

Report of Assistant HENRY MITCHELL *on the physical surveys of New-York harbor and the coast of Long Island, with descriptions of apparatus for observing currents, &c.*

BOSTON, *September* 30, 1859.

SIR,—I have the honor to inform you that the field-work comprehended in your plan for the physical survey of New-York harbor has been completed by the operations of the past season.

At the commencement of this work it was quite impossible to foresee the form it would ultimately assume, the questions to which it would give rise, or the investigations to which it would lead. Neither the precise character of the observations to be made, nor the extent to which they should be carried, could be estimated in an undertaking in many respects quite novel and without precedent.

Certain changes in the forms of shoals and channels had been revealed by the comparison of the early surveys with those of more recent date, and the questions arose—To what causes are these changes due? and—To what end do they progress? What are the natural forces which build in one direction shoals and beaches, while opening elsewhere new channels, or wearing away the shores? These were the problems for the solution of which the physical survey was instituted.

The general plan of this work, to which you first directed my attention, has been adhered to throughout; since your subsequent instructions have referred to the limits of each season's work, rather than to the character of it. By this plan we have been required to observe, and make note of, every natural operation, whether of tides, currents, winds or waves; in fine, to compile for a certain period a complete physical history of these elements from a systematic course of inquiry.

The field over which our observations have spread includes not only the harbor proper, but its approaches in all directions, extending up the Hudson River to Fort Washington, into Long Island Sound as far as Execution Light, through the Kills, over the bar and sixty miles out to sea. Throughout this field the periods, velocities and paths of the various currents are determined, as are also the experiences of the tide waves (both from the Sound and the ocean) in the different channels and avenues which they traverse. The disturbing effects of winds and freshets, the appearance of rips and eddies, together with general meteorological phenomena, have all been noted carefully.

The whole number of tidal and current stations which we have occupied exceeds one hundred and fifty, and at these the observations number many thousands. Many of the tidal stations were occupied one or more entire lunations, and at some of the current stations the observations were continued in unbroken series of half-hourly records for seven, nine and fourteen days. The aggregate amount of time spent on the field-work has not exceeded twelve months.

Rough computations of our observations were made in the intervals between the working seasons, and these acquainted us with the progress we were making, and pointed out the direction which succeeding inquiries should take. From the results of our labors we gained at each step confidence and encouragement. What appeared at first a tangled skein of accidental or inconstant causes, we ultimately recognised as orderly and harmonious relations; and, our methods of observing improving steadily, the work advanced to its close at a pace constantly accelerated.

The observations of the past season were confined to no special locality, but were made at various points where previous operations were incomplete or required connecting links.

Our field-work commenced the first of June, and the quiet weather which prevailed during this month was improved for the occupation of the more exposed stations—those near shallow portions of the bar and along the outside coast. We had designed to occupy a station which should, if possible, lie quite beyond the reach of the New-York harbor drift, and enable us to determine whether any oceanic current sweeps into the great bay formed by the coasts of Long Island and New-Jersey. For this purpose we anchored, in thirty fathoms water, nearly sixty miles east-southeast of Sandy Hook, where, during a period of fifteen hours, we measured the currents at the surface, and at depths of twenty-three and one hundred and fifty feet, besides a few determinations of the mean motion for the entire depth. At this station, nearly forty miles from the nearest land, we found regular tidal currents, nearly as strong as those observed at the light-ship the previous season. No oceanic current could be detected, but the augmentation of the ebb current, caused by the drainage of the land waters, was very appreciable. The velocities of the currents are not so regular at this station, from the fact that the depth of the moving water stratum is variable, at one time extending to the bed of the sea, at another reaching but a short distance below the surface. The directions of the flood and ebb drifts were found to be respectively west-southwest and east by south; which, making due allowance for the disturbing effects of the land waters, would indicate that the tide-wave has here a westerly motion. The land waters of which we have spoken are doubtless the combined drainage from New-York harbor and the various inlets; for, extending our observations along the south shore of Long Island, we found that they outlive the tidal currents, and establish themselves as a constant coastwise stream along the eastern portion of Fire Island beach.

The stations outside of the bar were eleven in number, at which above seventeen hundred observations were recorded, and of these more than five hundred were made at points below the surface. The greater part of our season's work lay in the lower bay or in the vicinity of the bar, where there remained some localities unexamined, and others at which previous examinations had given discordant results.

From the computations which followed the field-work of 1858, it appeared that where observations were sufficiently numerous the causes of a certain class of shoals were immediately deducible from the data obtained. It was ascertained, on making a composition of the currents at each station, with the assumption that they are to be regarded as forces acting simultaneously, that the resultants take directions towards the shoals as focal points; making it evident that the sand which forms these shoals

is gradually swept together from the neighboring channels. Simple as the dynamics of this natural process may be, its form can only be developed from the most accurate determinations of the elements. The resultant, for instance, may be a very small quantity from a station at which the adverse currents are very violent. In a case like this, the slightest error of observation, or even the selection of an unsuitable period, may give us a false result and lead us entirely astray. If the observations are not sufficiently frequent, they may fail to give the exact durations of certain phases of the currents; or if the positions of the stations are not closely determined, errors enter into the directions of the forces. Again: If the observations are not continued long enough to eliminate the diurnal inequalities, an undue weight will be given to some of the elements which enter into the problem. At the commencement of the past season, forewarned of these difficulties, I placed in the hands of my observers printed rules for their guidance, and required of each person a strict conformity to them. Twenty-one stations were occupied in the portion of the work to which I have just referred, and at these the aggregate number of observations reaches nearly five thousand, of which above eighteen hundred are from points below the surface. At these stations the observations were usually kept up in unbroken series of twenty-five hours each.

A more suitable period for observations of so exact a character could scarcely have been chosen; our operations were rarely suspended by bad weather, and few delays of any kind occurred.

In making observations upon bars and shoals, the disturbing effects of strong winds cannot be disregarded; for it not unfrequently happens that they change the direction of the current, or wholly reverse its course. In districts of shallow water the waves created by the winds have a motion of translation whose effect upon the log is very great; and although the observer is able to distinguish this sudden and uncertain motion from that of the more steady current, he cannot introduce a correction for it. Where the sea is deep, the impulses it receives from the winds result in simple undulations, giving to the log no horizontal motion whatever, so that, even when the swell is very heavy, accurate current observations are possible. As far as our experience has gone, we have never observed in the waves any power of transportation where the depth of water exceeds three fathoms.

Above the Narrows there were eight stations occupied—three in the main channel of the harbor, two in the Hudson and three in the East River. At these there were recorded over seventeen hundred observations, of which above eight hundred were made upon the sub-currents.

The stations in the harbor, as well as those in the Hudson River, were designed to furnish us with additional data relative to a class of remarkable counter-currents discovered the previous season. The former observations had established the fact, that along the main channel the currents of the lowest water stratum maintain velocities and directions quite at variance with those near the surface. It however remained to be proved whether the phenomena observed were continuous from station to station or mere local conditions; and if their continuity could be shown, the exact limits of their domain were to be ascertained. The information now in our hands affords, I am convinced, a full and faithful exhibit of these points.

The three stations in the East River lie in positions which the previous work had shown to be important, as embracing the terminus of the Hell Gate interference current. At one of these stations, which lies in the deep basin westward of the point of Blackwell's Island, some curious conditions of the sub-currents manifested themselves. Here the axis of the ebb (westerly) drift was observed to lie about twenty feet below the surface throughout the entire duration of this current; in other words, the current is stronger at this depth than at any other point above or below. There are resemblances between this phenomenon and those already referred to as appearing in the main channel of the harbor, but I am doubtful whether we can class them together. In the discussion of our results, we propose to group the currents of the upper harbor according to tidal hours obtained from the self-registering gauge at Governor's Island, and those of the lower harbor and its approaches, according to tidal observations made simultaneously by some of our own party at Sandy Hook.

The closing work upon the physical survey of New-York harbor, which we have briefly described, did not occupy us during the entire season, and there proved to be ample time for the other operations directed by your instructions, viz., inquiries into the physical conditions of the bays and inlets along the south shore of Long Island.

Glancing at a chart of our coast, one may see on the south shore of the island of Nantucket a series of small ponds separated from the sea by narrow reaches of sand. On Martha's Vineyard the same features may be observed along the outer shore, except that here the larger basins or lagoons have occasional outlets through the strips of sand beach. Further to the westward, upon the coast of Long Island, appear similar basins, so extensive as almost to form inland seas with outlets of considerable depth, through which vessels may pass. Here are fully established the forms which may be distinguished as the leading characteristics of the Atlantic coast to the southward, and of the entire Gulf shore. From the past history of the sandy portion of our sea-coast, it appears that the outlets to which we have referred are never permanent, but continually shift their positions, either by gradual encroachments and recessions of the sand reaches, or by suddenly closing up at one point and breaking away at another. The design of our study was to ascertain, if possible, the causes which maintain these extended sandy reaches, and the agencies which create the channels through them. In this undertaking, the line of stations, to which reference was made in the former part of this report, extending along the coast, at intervals of from five to twelve miles from Coney Island to a point twenty-five miles east of Fire Island light, gave us all the requisite data for a complete knowledge of the shore currents and we added to these series of current observations at Fire Island, Crow Gut and Rockaway inlets, besides others from stations in the Great South Bay. By half-hourly records at gauges temporarily erected, the form of the tide-wave as it enters Fire Island Inlet was compared with that observed at Sandy Hook on the one hand, and that at the eastern extremity of the Great South Bay upon the other. At some of the outside stations we threw over sinking articles, hoping to find them again upon some portion of the beach, and thus be able to determine the direction of the movements on the bottom of the sea. The first class of articles we tried were balls made of cement, with corks enclosed, giving them what we

supposed to be the requisite specific gravity. On a former occasion these cement balls were used quite successfully along the shores of Sandy Hook, but we now found them to fail entirely on this coast, where the currents are more feeble. We subsequently had recourse to the large skimmer shell (*mactra solidissima*) which we collected from the shores, and marked with drills. Some of these, cast over in three fathoms water off Oak Beach, travelled eastward, and crossing Fire Island Inlet, were swept on shore four miles to the eastward of their place of deposit. In the performance of this journey they were occupied over two weeks, during a prevalence of easterly winds. Of three hundred shells cast into the sea, one hundred were recovered—a much larger proportion than we could possibly have expected to find among the shifting sands and the miscellaneous stranded articles upon these beaches. The easterly preponderance in the movements of the currents along the bed of the sea, which the journey of these shells revealed, corresponds with the results from previous observations of the surface drifts.

As our inquiries proceeded, it became evident that the currents, powerful though they may be to scour channels and form the ocean bed, cannot alone effect the peculiar changes which are observed to take place in the beaches, but that the waves take a part, not insignificant, in these operations. In the shallow waters along these alluvial shores the waves, driving in from the ocean, acquire violent horizontal movements, and dash along the beach with a force in comparison with which the strongest currents are quite impotent. In order that we might the better understand and determine the precise action of the waves and the relation of their office to that of the current, we made a very careful examination of the conditions in miniature forms of bays and inlets, where the limited field of observations afforded us a comprehensive view of the natural activities at work. The results of this examination have already been laid before you, with such conclusions from them as were immediately obvious.

In the course of this and former reports I have referred repeatedly to the observations of currents at different depths, and it has occurred to me that some description of the apparatus in use should here be given, in order that the reliability of the results should be established.

Descriptions of Apparatus.

For observations upon the surface currents we use a "tube-log," which is simply a tin cylinder four inches in diameter and six feet long. This tube is partially filled with water, so as to sink nearly its whole length and maintain an upright position; and a graduated line being attached, the observations are made as with an ordinary ship's log. We have found that a log of less draught than this is liable to be affected by the wind.

When we desire to obtain the mean motion of a stratum of greater depth, we use twenty-four feet feet tubes, and in some cases those as long as forty-eight feet.

If the velocity of the current in the lowest water stratum is desired, we take the following course: Two copper globes of equal dimensions are connected by wire rope of the smallest possible size compatible with the strength required. One of these globes, being filled with water, is allowed to sink the whole length of the connecting line, while the other being empty, or only partially loaded, swims at the surface of the sea. To the upper globe the log line is secured. The velocity with which the globes,

thus connected, will move, is a mean of the rates at which the upper and lower water strata are flowing; and if simultaneous observations are made with this apparatus and the surface log, before described, we are furnished with the means of obtaining by calculation the velocity of the lowest stratum. This method may be employed where the water is not so deep as to give to the connecting wire rope an extent of surface which, exposed to the current, may require consideration in the problem.

The instruments I have described thus far are similar to those which have been used in determining the discharge of canals in Europe. In the application of these to inquiries on a larger scale, I have found it necessary to make certain modifications of them to insure accuracy.

It not unfrequently occurs that the velocity of the surface drift is many times greater than that of the lower stratum, or holds altogether a reverse direction, so that the motion of the globes is quite at variance with that of the surface log. In a case like this, the graduated line secured to the globes is borne away by the surface current, and the observer is deceived. The full extent of this difficulty will be appreciated when it is considered that the line of which I have spoken is necessarily of considerable size, the strength of six men being sometimes required to draw in the globes. I propose to obviate this difficulty by the following arrangement: Within the upper globe, made of wood in this case, a reel is placed, upon which a small log-line, passing in at an aperture at the pole, is wound by a crank from without. The extremity of this log-line is secured to a third globe, which swims freely upon the surface of the sea. When making an observation, the log-line is wound up until the floating globes are brought together; then, at a signal, the reel is loosened; and now, if the surface and sub-currents differ in velocity, the free globe separates from the others, and the observer notices the number of divisions of the log-line drawn out in thirty seconds. In this experiment the apparatus is in nowise connected with the vessel, but the observer follows in a boat until the trial is completed. Figure 1 (Sketch No. 40) shows the relative position of these globes during the course of the observations. In this figure A and B are the connected globes, while C is the free float. The weight of the globe B causes the swimming globe A to sink nearly to its pole, and the free float C is loaded so as to sink about the same distance. The graduated line, which measures the separation of the floating globes, may be seen, one end fastened to a ring upon the free float C, the other passing in at the pole of the globe A. Figure 2 is an enlarged representation of the globe A, opened so as to show the reel within. The water, which enters the globe freely, acts as a check, preventing this reel from acquiring an undue momentum with any sudden jerk of the line caused by the waves. In this figure may be seen the position of the crank by which the reel is wound; this crank is, of course, removed after the floating globes are drawn together. Upon the outside of the globe containing the reel every ten degrees are marked, that the observer may note in his record the amount submerged. In the reduction of these observations the extent of the wetted surfaces of the two connected globes must be considered, since, in the case of a difference of velocity between the upper and lower strata, the effective areas of the surfaces exposed to the two streams enter into the problem. In all positions the effective surface which a globe wholly immersed presents to the current is a great circle. The velocity attained by the connected globes is a *simple mean* of the

velocities of the superficial and lower strata when the effective surfaces are *equal;* and when these surfaces are *unequal*, the *mean* by *weight.* If x = velocity at surface, y = velocity at lowest point; then with equal surfaces we obtain velocity of globes $= \frac{1}{2}(x + y.)$ If the effective surfaces opposed to the drifts (portions of great circles) are unequal, and their areas be represented by a and b, we have the velocity of globes $= \frac{1}{a+b}(ax + by.)$ This expression represents the immediate result obtained by the original manner of using the globes if the vessel be at anchor; but, in our modification, the result of our experiment is the difference between the motion of the free and that of the connected globes, or $x - \frac{1}{a+b}(ax + by.)$ The extent of the wetted surface of the free globe will not affect the result, but it is convenient to have this globe of the same size as the others, so as not to be greatly affected by winds.

If the paths of the surface and sub-currents do not lie in the same vertical plane, the connected globes take an intermediate course, with velocity $= \frac{1}{a+b}\sqrt{\{(a\,x \sin.\,\beta_1 + by \sin.\,\beta_2)^2 + (a\,x \cos.\,\beta_1 + by \cos.\,\beta_2)^2\}}$, and $tan\ \theta$ (angle of direction) $= \frac{a\,x \sin.\,\beta_1 + by \sin.\,\beta_2}{a\,x \cos.\,\beta_1 + by \cos.\,\beta_2}$ when β_1 and β_2 represent the respective angles of direction of the upper and lower drifts.

When observations are to be made at sea, where there is a great depth of water, a further modification of the apparatus is necessary. In place of the two connected globes in the foregoing description, a hempen line is used, (perhaps two inches in diameter,) terminating in a wooden pole above and a leaden cylinder below, the former serving to float the shaft, while the latter sinks and straightens the line, and the reel is transferred to the free globe. The apparatus, thus modified, will serve to exhibit the difference between the surface drift and the mean velocity of a stratum of water whose depth equals the length of the shaft immersed. If we know the surface velocity we may readily obtain the velocity of the lowest point reached, *if we suppose the change of velocity from point to point to be uniform*, by subtracting the surface rate from twice the mean velocity. This supposition is not always correct, and must be tested by the following experiment: The log-line having been unfastened, the pole is passed through a copper globe, and the line drawn up until the globe can be secured at a point which will occupy a middle position of the wetted surface on again letting the shaft sink as far as it may. Upon a new trial, if the velocity observed is still the same, we may conclude that our supposition is correct; if not, we may, by shifting the position of the globe again and again, making at each remove an observation and record, or by using simultaneously several such shafts, calculate approximately the conditions of the sub-currents and the curve at which our deep shaft hangs. The globes which we have used measure two feet in diameter.

Before closing this rapid sketch of our devices for obtaining the data required by your instructions, I would refer briefly to a new form given to a pile used in securing a tide-gauge at Fire Island, and which, I think, possesses some peculiar advantages for use upon sandy coasts where there is a heavy sea. This pile is of oak, or other heavy and strong wood, and is so cut that the lower portion of it, for a space of six or eight feet, pre-

sents the appearance of a number of inverted frustrums of cones, placed one above another—the series terminating in a sharp and heavy shoeing. As a whole, it is required to have a greater weight than the sand and water it is intended to displace. On working this pile into the sand, by swaying it to and fro, in the usual manner, each cone, as it sinks, acts upon the sand *above* and *below*, as at once a lever and a wedge, giving to the whole a continual downward thrust. In the same way the waves, instead of tearing it up, cause it to work deeper and deeper, and thus the lateral oscillation of the sea is converted into vertical motion, and brought to our aid. Of course this downward tendency of the pile can be easily checked if too great for our purposes. As my description of this pile is not altogether clear, I annex a diagram, which will require no explanation.

Very respectfully, yours,

HENRY MITCHELL,
Assistant Coast Survey.

Professor A. D. BACHE,
Superintendent Coast Survey.

TIDES AND CURRENTS IN NEW-YORK HARBOR AND ITS APPROACHES.

This work, which has been going on under my immediate direction for several seasons past, was completed at the end of the summer by Assistant HENRY MITCHELL, so far as the principal field labors are concerned. It was commenced with the view of ascertaining the causes of certain important changes in the hydrography of the harbor as developed by the comparison of charts of different dates. All the natural forces, such as tides, currents, winds and waves, which might be supposed to concur in producing the physical effects noticed, were included in the series of observations, and the large amount of information thus obtained will, no doubt, when fully discussed, determine the conditions under which the harbor exists. In my last report reference was made to the discovery of a class of sub-currents, the motions of which were found to be quite at variance with those of the surface currents. The observations made during the present season connect these sub-currents with the path of the Hudson in its course through the waters of New-York bay, and for their full development it was found necessary to extend the current stations about sixty miles outside of the bar, and also along the coast of Long Island. In the latter vicinity the effect of the land waters was traced quite beyond the reach of the tidal drifts. Observations were made in the same quarter with a view of developing the conditions under which the inlets on the south shore of Long Island are maintained and for ascertaining the causes of their change in position. Thirty-seven current stations were occupied, the records from which contain over eight thousand observations. More than three thousand of the entries are for points below the surface. Appendix No. 26 contains the report of Assistant MITCHELL on the season's labors. His report contains remarks on improvements in the apparatus for observing currents at great depths below the surface, and refers also to an improved form of pile for securing tide-gauges on the sea-coast.

HARBORS AND RIVERS OF THE UNITED STATES.

TABLE SHOWING THE LEAST WATER IN THE CHANNELS OF CERTAIN HARBORS, RIVERS AND ANCHORAGES ON THE COASTS OF THE UNITED STATES, REPRINTED FROM THE LIST OF 1857, AND REVISED WITH ADDITIONS AND TIDAL DATA.

From the Report of the Superintendent of the United States Coast Survey.

PLACES.	*Limits between which depths are given.*	LEAST WATER IN CHANNEL WAY. Mean. *Low water.* Feet.	Mean. *High water.* Feet.	Spring tides. *Low water.* Feet.	Spring tides. *High water.* Feet.	*Authorities.*
Portland, Maine,	From Cape Elizabeth to Portland light,	45	53.9	44.5	54.4	C. S., 1850, 1853 and 1854.
	From Portland light to breakwater,[1]	36	44.9	35.5	45.4	
	From breakwater to end of Munjoy Point,	30	38.9	29.5	39.4	
	From breakwater to anchorage,	16	24.9	15.5	25.4	
	Channel-way off town and wharves,	27	35.9	26.5	36.4	
	From Munjoy to rail-road bridge,	19.5	28.4	19	28.9	
Portsmouth, N. H.,	From Whale's back to Fort Constitution,	42	50.6	41.4	51.3	C. S., 1851.
	From Fort Constitution to the Narrows,	51	59.6	50.4	60.3	
	From the Narrows to the city,	45	53.6	44.4	54.3	
	Off the wharves,	68	71.6	62.4	72.3	
Newburyport,	Over bar,	7	14.8	6.6	15.7	C. S., 1857.
Ipswich,	Over bar,	7.5	16.1	6.6	16.8	
Annisquam,	Over bar,	6.5	15.5	5.6	16.4	
Gloucester,	Channel into southeast harbor,	30	38.9	29.1	39.8	C. S., 1854.
	Inner harbor channel to abreast Ten Pound Island light,	31	39.9	30.1	40.8	
	Up into inner harbor,	24	32.9	23.1	33.8	
Salem, Mass.,	Northern ship channel, between Baker's and Misery Islands,	52	61.2	51.8	61.9	C. S., 1850 and 1851.
	Southern ship channel, passing Half-way Rock, &c.,	28	37.2	27.8	37.9	
	Inside of Salem Neck,	19	28.2	18.8	28.9	
Boston, Mass.,	Main ship channel, between Lovel's and Gallop's Islands,	28.5	38.5	27.8	39.1	C. S., 1846, 1847, 1848 and 1853.
	Broad sound, south channel,	19.5	29.5	18.8	30.1	
	President's roads, anchorage,	31.5	41.5	30.8	42.1	
	Main channel, between Governor's Island and Castle Island,	18	28	17.8	28.6	
Plymouth,	Entrance off Gurnet lights,	21	31.2	20.8	31.7	C. S., 1857.
	South of Duxbury pier, in mid channel,	48	58.2	47.8	58.7	

	Up to anchorage inside the pier-head on Long Beach,	14	..	24.3	..	18.8	24.7	C. S., 1857.
	At anchorage inside the pier-head,	24	..	34.2	.	23.8	.. 34.7	
	Anchorage in the Cow Yard,	24	..	34.2	..	23.3	.. 34.7	
Narragansett bay to Prudence Island,	Entering with Boston Neck on port hand, Beavertail and Dutch Island lights on starboard hand,	25	..	28.9	..	24.6	.. 29.2	Com. Wadsworth, 1852.
	Entering with Beavertail light on the port and Castle Hill on starboard hand, up to Goat Island,	60	..	68.9	..	59.6	.. 64.2	C. S., 1848.
	Anchorage southward and westward of Goat Island,	33	..	36.9	..	32.6	.. 37.2	
	Abreast of wharves inside of Goat Island,	21	..	24.9	..	20.6	.. 25.2	
	From Newport harbor, inside of Gull Rocks to Prudence Island,	31	..	34.9	..	30.6	.. 35.2	
	To Mount Hope bay,	42	..	45.9	..	41.6	.. 46.2	
	To Mount Hope bay, with Cormorant Rock, Sachuest Point on port, and Saughkonnet Point on starboard hand,	20	..	23.9	..	19.6	.. 24.2	
New-York,	Gedney's channel,	23	..	27.8	..	22.6	.. 28.1	C. S., 1855 and 1856.
	Swash channel,	17	..	21.8	..	16.6	.. 22.1	
	Old South channel,	21	..	25.8	..	20.6	.. 26.1	
	Main ship channel, passing Sandy Hook to SW. Spit buoy,	31	..	35.8	..	30.6	.. 36.1	
	Main ship channel, after passing SW. Spit buoy on NE. course, one mile up the bay for New-York,	23	..	27.8	..	22.6	.. 28.1	
Arthur's Kill,	Anchorage at Perth Amboy,	22	..	26.9	..	21.5	.. 27.5	C. S., 1855.
	From anchorage to Woodbridge wharf,	22	..	26.9	..	21.5	.. 27.5	
	From Woodbridge wharf to Rossville,[2]	13.5	..	18.6	..	13.0	.. 19.2	
	From Rossville to Chelsea,[3]	14	..	19.1	..	13.5	.. 19.7	
	From Chelsea, in the western channel, to Elizabethport,[4]	13	..	18.1	..	12.5	.. 18.7	
	From Elizabethport to Shooter's Island,[5]	6.5	..	10.9	..	6.0	.. 11.5	
Kill van Kull,	From Shooter's Island to Bergen Point lighthouse,	10	..	14.8	..	9.5	.. 14.9	
	From Bergen Point lighthouse to New-Brighton,	27	..	31.8	..	26.5	.. 31.9	
Newark Bay,	From Bergen Point lighthouse to the mouth of Hackensack River,[6]	7	..	11.6	..	6.5	.. 12.2	C. S., 1855.
Hudson River,	From Castle Garden to Manhattanville,	32	..	36.0	..	31.6	.. 36.8	do.
	From Manhattanville to Yonkers,	27	..	30.8	..	26.7	.. 31.8	do.
	From Yonkers to Piermont ferry,[7]	39	..	42.6	..	38.7	.. 43.0	C. S., 1853.
	From Piermont Ferry to Sing Sing,[8]	24.5	..	28.0	..	24.3	.. 28.3	do.
	From Sing Sing to Haverstraw,	26	..	29.1	..	25.8	.. 29.8	do.
	From Haverstraw to Peekskill,	27	..	30.1	..	26.8	.. 30.8	C. S., 1854.

HARBORS AND RIVERS OF THE U. S.—(*Continued.*)

Places.	*Limits between which depths are given.*	Least Water in Channel Way. Mean. *Low water.* Feet.	Mean. *High water.* Feet.	Spring tides. *Low water.* Feet.	Spring tides. *High water.* Feet.	*Authorities.*
Delaware Bay,.....	Main ship channel, passing Delaware breakwater,[9].....	61	64.5	60.4	64.9	C. S., from 1840 to 1844, inclusive.
	Off Brandywine lighthouse,.....	43	46.5	42.4	46.9	
	Main ship channel, passing False Liston's tree to abreast of Bombay Hook light,.....	27.5	33.4	27.3	34.2	
	Blake's Channel, along Flogger Shoal,.....	18.5	19.4	18.3	20.2	
	Blake's Channel, passing Mahon River light,.....	18.5	19.4	18.3	20.2	
	Main ship channel approaching Liston's Point,.....	20	25.9	19.8	26.7	
Delaware River,.....	Main ship channel up to Reedy Island,.....	20	26	19.6	26.3	C. S., from 1840 to 1844, inclusive.
	Main ship channel, opposite Reedy Island lighthouse,.....	24.5	30.5	24.1	30.3	
	Opposite Delaware City,.....	30	36	29.6	36.3	
	Up to Christiana Creek light,.....	20.5	27	20.3	27.2	
	Up to Marcus Hook,.....	20.5	27	20.3	27.2	
	Opposite Chester,.....	24.5	30.7	24.4	31.2	
	Bar off Hog Island,.....	18.5	24.7	18.4	25.2	
	Between Greenwich Point and Gloucester Point,.....	31.5	37.5	31.4	38.2	
	From Greenwich Point up to Philadelphia,.....	21.5	27.5	21.4	28.2	
Chesapeake Bay,.....	From capes at entrance to Hampton Roads,.....	30	32.5	29.8	32.8	1852, 1853 and 1854.
	Anchorage in Hampton Roads,.....	59	61.5	58.8	61.8	
	From Hampton Roads to Sewall's Point,.....	25	27.5	24.8	27.8	
	South of Sewall's Point, (one mile and a half,).....	21	23.5	20.8	23.8	
	Up to Norfolk,.....	23	25.5	22.8	25.8	
	From Hampton Roads to James River, entering to the northward of Newport News middle ground,.....	22	24.5	21.7	24.8	
	From Hampton Roads to James River, entering to the southward of Newport News middle ground,.....	27	29.5	26.7	29.8	
York River, Va.,.....	From abreast the tail of York Spit up to Yorktown,.....	33	35.5	32.7	35.8	
Elizabeth River, Va.,....	Between Norfolk and Navy Yard,.....	25.5	28	25.3	28.3	
Hatteras Inlet, N. C.,....	Entrance,.....	19	21	18.9	21.1	1857.
	Anchorage in Oliver's Channel,.....	13	15	12.9	15.1	
	Over bulkhead into Pamlico Sound,.....	7	9	6.9	9.1	

Ocracoke Inlet,	Over bar,	10	..	12.4	..	8.8	..	12.6	1857.	
	Anchorage in Wallico's Channel,	19	..	21.4	..	18.8	..	21.6	1857.	
Albemarle Sound,	From light-boat off Caroen's Point to a line joining Powell's Point and Shell Bank, near the mouth of Currituck Sound,	7	..	....	..	....	..	....	1851.	
	Thence up the Sound to Martin's Point,	5.5	..	....	..	....	..	....	1851.	
	Martin's Point to Trout's Hole, south of Rattlesnake Island,	5	..	....	..	....	..	....	1851.	
North River, N. C.,	At entrance, and seven miles up from Albemarle Sound,	6.7	..	....	..	....	..	....	1850.	
Beaufort, N. C.	Main ship channel,	15.5	..	18.8	..	15.8	..	18.6	1854.	
	Through the Slue,	7	..	9.8	..	6.8	..	10.1	1857.	
Cape Fear,	New Inlet Bar,	8	..	12.5	..	7.5	..	13	1857.	
	Western Bar,	8	..	12.5	..	7.5	..	13	1857.	
Georgetown, S. C.,	Entrance to Winyah Bay, East and Southeast Pass,	7	..	10.8	..	6.7	..	11.8	1851, 1852 and 1853.	
	Anchorage inside of North Island,	27	..	30.8	..	26.7	..	31.8	1851, 1852 and 1853.	
	Up to Georgetown,	9	..	12.6	..	8.7	..	13.1	1851, 1852 and 1853.	
Bull's Bay,	Over bar,	13	..	17.8	..	12.6	..	18.8	1857.	
	At anchorage,	21	..	25.8	..	20.6	..	26.8	1857.	
Charleston, S. C.,	Main bar,	11	..	16.8	..	10.8	..	17.1	1857.	
	North Channel,	10	..	15.8	..	9.8	..	16.1	1857.	
	Maffit's Channel,	11	..	16.8	..	10.8	..	17.1	1858.	
North Edisto,	East Channel,	11	..	16.8	..	10.5	..	17.4	1856.	
	Southeast Channel,	13	..	18.8	..	12.5	..	19.4	1856.	
St. Helena Sound,	South Edisto Channel,	14	..	19.9	..	13.3	..	20.7	1856 and 1857.	
	Southeast Channel,	10	..	15.9	..	9.3	..	16.7	1856 and 1857.	
	South Channel,	17	..	22.9	..	16.3	..	23.7	1856 and 1857.	
	East Channel,	8	..	13.9	..	7.3	..	14.7	1856 and 1857.	
Port Royal,	East Channel,	16	..	23	..	15.5	..	23.5	1855 and 1856.	
	Southeast Channel,	20	..	27	..	19.5	..	27.5	1855 and 1856.	
	South Channel,	18	..	25	..	17.5	..	25.5	1855 and 1856.	
Tybee Entrance,	Bar near Tybee Island,	19	..	26	..	18.4	..	26.5	1851 and 1852.	
	Tybee Roads,	31	..	38	..	30.4	..	38.5	1851 and 1852.	
Savannah,	Channel up to city, (Wrecks and Garden Bank,)	11	..	17.5	..	10.6	..	18.2	Capt. Gilmer, U. S. Engineers.—1856.	
Doboy Bar, (inlet,)	Entrance over bar,	15.5	..	22.1	..	14.7	..	22.5	1855.	
	Anchorage in sound,	24	..	30.6	..	28.2	..	31	1855.	
St. Simon's,	Over bar at entrance,	17	..	23.8	..	16.3	..	24.5	1855 and 1856.	
	Entrance to sound,	38	..	44.8	..	37.3	..	45.5	1855 and 1856.	

HARBORS AND RIVERS OF THE U. S.—(*Continued.*)

Places.	*Places between which depths are given.*	Least Water in Channel Way. Mean. *Low water.* Feet.	Mean. *High water.* Feet.	Spring tides. *Low water.* Feet.	Spring tides. *High water.* Feet.	*Authorities.*
	Turtle River up to Blythe Island,	21	27.8	20.8	28.5	1855 and 1856.
St. Mary's,	Main ship channel over bar,	14.5	20.8	14	20.7	1855, 1856 and 1857.
	Channel up to St. Mary's,	19	24.9	18.5	25.2	
St. John's River, Fla.,	Over bar at entrance,	7	11.5	6.4	11.9	1855.
	Channel passing up towards Jacksonville,	23	25.1	22.5	25.5	
Florida Reef,	Approaches to the inside of the reef:					
	Cape Florida lighthouse, bearing W. SW. ¾ W.,	20	21.5	19.9	21.7	1852.
	Entrance to the northward of Fowey Rocks; Soldier Key bearing SW. ¼ W.,	19	20.5	18.9	20.7	
	Entrance to Legaré anchorage,	20	21.5	19.9	21.7	
	Turtle Harbor entrance,	26	27.5	25.9	27.7	1854.
	Channel inside the reefs (Hawk Channel) from entrance off Cape Florida lighthouse to Rodriguez Key,	11	12.5	10.9	12.7	
	Anchorage one mile from Indian Key,	21	22.8	20.7	23.1	
	Bahia Honda Channel, west point of Bahia Honda bearing N. NW.,	18	19.3	17.7	19.5	
	Key Sambo Channel, between Middle and Western Sambo,	34	35.3	33.7	35.5	
	Inside the reef, and steering W. by N. for buoy,	14	15.3	13.7	15.5	
Key West,	Main ship channel to middle buoy on shoals,	27	28.3	26.9	28.5	1850 and 1851.
	From shoals to anchorage,	30	31.3	29.9	31.5	
	East channel, entering,	30	31.3	29.9	31.5	
	On course N. NW. ¾ W., (light on O'Hara's Observatory,) and passing between shoals,	28	29.3	27.9	29.5	
	From 14 feet shoals to anchorage,	30	31.3	29.9	31.5	
	At anchorage,	27	28.3	26.9	28.5	
	Rock Key Channel,	20	21.3	19.9	21.5	
	Sand Key Channel,	27	28.3	26.9	28.5	
	West Channel,	30	31.3	29.9	31.5	
	Northwest Channel up to abreast Northwest Light,	15	16.3	14.9	16.5	
	Over Northwest Channel bar,	13	13.3	11.9	13.5	
Tortugas,	Northwest Channel,	45	46.2	44.8	46.4	
	Southwest Channel,	54	55.2	53.8	55.4	

Tampa Bay,	Over bar,	19	..	20.4	..	18.8	..	20.6	1855.
	Channel between Egmont and Passage Key,	17	..	18.4	..	16.8	..	18.6	
Waccasassa Bay,	Channel up to anchorage,	8	..	10.6	..	7.7	..	10.9	1857.
Cedar Keys,	Main channel,	9	..	11.6	..	8.7	..	11.9	1858.
	Northwest Channel over bar,	11	..	13.6	..	10.7	..	13.9	1854.
St. Mark's,	Over bar,	9	..	11.2	..	8.7	..	11.5	1856.
	Channel at middle buoy,	12	..	14.2	..	11.7	..	14.5	
	In mid-channel, off lighthouse,	15	..	17.2	..	14.7	..	17.5	
	Up to Fort St. Mark's,	7	..	9.2	..	6.7	..	9.5	1852.
St. George's Sound,	East entrance over bar,	15.5	..	....	..	....	..	....	1858.
	Main ship channel,	14	..	....	..	....	..	....	
	Swash Channel,	13	..	....	..	....	..	....	
	At anchorage,	19	..	....	..	....	..	....	
Apalachicola,	Over bar,*	13	..	....	..	....	..	....	
	In mid-channel, off beacon on St. Vincent's Island,	39	..	....	..	....	..	....	
	Up to anchorage,	10	..	....	..	....	..	....	
St. Andrew's Bay,	Main ship channel, over bar,*	13	..	14	..	12.8	..	14.3	1855.
	Swash Channel, over bar,	7	..	8	..	6.8	..	8.3	
	West Pass, over bar,	7	..	8	..	6.8	..	8.3	
Pensacola,	Over bar,*	22.5	..	23.5	..	22.3	..	23.8	1856.
	From bar to Navy Yard,	27	..	28	..	26.8	..	28.3	
	Off wharf at Pensacola,	21	..	22	..	20.8	..	22.3	
Mobile Bay and River,	Over outer bar,*	21	..	22	..	20.7	..	22.2	1847 to 1852, inclusive.
	Main ship channel to Fort Morgan,	36	..	37	..	35.7	..	37.2	
	To the upper fleet,	12	..	13	..	11.7	..	13.2	
	Grant's Pass,*	6.5	..	7.5	..	6.3	..	7.8	1847.
Mississippi Sound,	From Grant's Pass to Pascagoula mail wharf,*	7.5	..	8.7	..	7.2	..	9	1851.
	Horn Island Pass, over bar,	15	..	16.2	..	14.7	..	16.5	1858.
	Anchorage inside Horn Island,	19	..	20.2	..	18.7	..	20.5	1852 and 1858.
	Up to Pascagoula mail wharf,	8	..	9.2	..	7.7	..	9.5	
Ship Island Harbor,	Channel,*	19	..	20.3	..	18.7	..	20.6	1848.
	Northwest Channel,	19.5	..	20.8	..	19.2	..	21.1	
	Anchorage, Man-of-war Harbor,	18	..	19.3	..	17.7	..	19.6	
Cat Island Harbor,	Ship channel,*	16	..	17.3	..	15.7	..	17.6	1848.
	South Pass,	14	..	15.3	..	13.7	..	15.6	
	Shell Bank Channel,	15.2	..	16.5	..	14.9	..	16.8	

HARBORS AND RIVERS OF THE U. S.—(*Continued.*)

Places.	*Limits between which depths are given.*	Least Water in Channel Way. Mean. *Low water.*	Mean. *High water.*	Spring tides. *Low water.*	Spring tides. *High water.*	*Authorities.*
		Feet.	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	
Mississippi Delta,	Pass à l'Outre, North Channel,*	9.5	10.6	9.8	10.7	1851 and 1852.
	South Channel,	12	13.1	11.8	13.2	
Northeast Pass,	Over bar, north entrance,*	9.5	10.6	9.8	10.7	
	Over bar, south entrance,	9	10.1	8.8	10.2	
Southeast Pass,	Entering,*	10	11.1	9.8	11.2	
South Pass,	Channel,*	8	9.1	7.8	9.2	
Southwest Pass,	Channel,*	13	14.1	12.8	14.2	
Barrataria Bay,	Over bar outside of Grand Pass,*	7.5	8.7	7.2	8.9	
	Grand passage to Independence Island,	15	16.2	14.7	16.4	1858.
Dernière or Last Island,	Channel inside, and north of Ship Island Shoal light ship,*	27	28.4	26.7	28.8	1858.
	Channel north of Ship Island Shoal, one mile from Dernière Island,	14	15.4	13.7	15.8	1858.
Atchafalaya Bay,	From entrance to Cut-off Channel buoy,*	8	9.6	7.6	10.0	1858.
	On the Narrows,	6.5	8.1	6.1	8.5	
	On bulkhead,	6.5	8.1	6.1	8.5	
	Mouth of Atchafalaya River, in mid-channel,	48	49.6	47.6	50.0	
Vermillion Bay,	Over bar,*	5.5	7.4	5.8	7.6	1855.
	In mid-channel, off lighthouse,	42	43.6	41.6	44	
Calcasieu River,	Entrance over bar,*	5.5	7.4	5.8	7.6	1855.
Sabine Pass,	Across the bar,*	7.5	9	7.2	9.3	1858.
Galveston Bay,	Entrance over bar,*	12	13.1	11.7	13.3	1858.
San Luis Pass,	Over bar,*	8	9.1	7.8	9.3	1858.
Brazos River,	Over bar,*	8	9.1	7.8	9.3	1858.
Matagorda Bay,	Entrance over bar,*	9	10.1	8.8	10.3	1857.
Aransas Pass,	Aransas Pass,*	9	10.1	8.7	10.5	1858.
Rio Grande,	Channel,*	4	4.9	3.8	5	1858.

* The highest tides occur at the moon's greatest declination, and are applied in the column headed "spring tides."

Places.	Limits between which depths are given.	Least Water in Channel Way. Mean, lowest of day. Low Water. Feet.	Mean, lowest of day. High Water. Feet.	Spring tides, lowest of day. Mean. Low Water. Feet.	Spring tides, lowest of day. Mean. High Water. Feet.	Spring tides, lowest of day. Moon's greatest declination. Low Water. Feet.	Spring tides, lowest of day. Moon's greatest declination. High Water. Feet.	Date.
San Diego Bay,	Entrance,	27.4	31.5	26.8	32.1	26.3	31.8	1851.
San Diego,	Midway between south end of Zuniga Shoal and Point Loma lighthouse, bearing N. 61½ W. by compass,	20	24.1	19.4	24.7	18.9	24.4	1856.
	Middle Ground lighthouse, bearing N. 67½ W. by compass, distant three-fourths of a statute mile,	18	22.1	17.4	22.7	16.9	22.4	1856.
	Midway and nearly in range between Ballast Point and point opposite,	22	26.1	21.4	26.7	20.9	26.4	1856.
	Abreast of La Plaza, 160 yards from shore,	18	22.1	17.4	22.7	16.9	22.4	1856.
	At end of wharf, (Newtown,)	28	27.1	22.4	27.7	21.9	27.4	1856.
San Clemente Island, (SE. end,)	About midway between NE. and SW. points at anchorage in deepest bight, 450 yards from shore,	40	44.1	39.4	44.7	38.9	44.4	1856.
San Clemente Island, (NW. end,)	About 200 yards from shore at anchorage,	36	40.1	35.4	40.7	34.9	40.4	1852.
Mission San Juan Capistrano,	At anchorage,	42	46.1	41.4	46.7	40.9	46.4	1858.
Santa Catalina Island, (SW. side,)	Anchorage in Catalina harbor,	21	25.0	20.5	25.5	19.9	25.1	1852.
San Pedro,	In range between Pt. Pedro and half a mile from Dead Man's Is.	18	22.0	17.5	22.5	16.9	22.1	1852.
Point Duma,	Anchorage,	54	58.0	53.5	58.5	52.9	58.1	1858.
San Buenaventura,	At anchorage half a mile from shore,	36	40.1	35.5	40.9	35.0	40.4	1855.
Santa Cruz Island,	Anchorage, Prisoner's harbor,	75	79.1	74.5	79.9	74.0	79.4	1852.
Santa Barbara,	Anchorage inside of kelp, 450 yards from shore,	18	22.1	17.5	22.9	17.0	22.4	1852.
San Miguel Island,	Anchorage, Cuyler's harbor,	37	41.1	36.5	41.9	36.0	41.4	1852.
Coxo harbor,	Anchorage,	30	34.1	29.5	34.9	29.0	34.4	1852.
San Louis Obispo,	Anchorage in harbor,	33	36.9	32.3	37.4	31.7	37.1	1852.
San Simeon,	Harbor anchorage,	24	27.9	23.3	28.4	22.7	28.1	1852.
Monterey harbor,	Anchorage,	42	45.9	41.5	46.2	40.9	45.8	1852.
	Near shore,	30	33.9	29.5	34.2	28.9	33.8	1852.
Santa Cruz harbor,	Anchorage,	27	30.9	26.5	31.2	25.9	30.8	1852.

HARBORS AND RIVERS OF THE U. S.—(*Continued.*)

Places.	*Limits between which depths are given.*	Least Water in Channel Way. Mean, lowest of day. *Low Water.* Feet.	Mean, lowest of day. *High Water.* Feet.	Spring tides, lowest of day. Mean. *Low Water.* Feet.	Spring tides, lowest of day. Mean. *High Water.* Feet.	Spring tides, lowest of day. Moon's greatest declination. *Low Water.* Feet.	Spring tides, lowest of day. Moon's greatest declination. *High Water.* Feet.	*Date.*
San Francisco bay,	From 4 fathom bank around to southern shore,	28	32.2	27.6	32.6	26.9	32.4	1851.
	Anchorage off Rincon Point, 450 yards from shore,	66	70.2	65.6	70.6	64.9	70.4	1851.
	Anchorage off Market-street wharf, San Francisco,	54	58.2	53.6	58.6	52.9	58.4	1851.
	Off Cunningham's wharf,	36	40.2	35.6	40.6	34.9	40.4	1851.
	Off Clark's point, 450 yards from shore,	42	46.2	41.6	46.6	40.9	46.4	1851.
San Francisco harbor,	On the bar,	33	37.2	32.6	37.6	31.9	37.4	1855.
	At best wharves,	20	24.2	19.6	24.6	18.9	24.4	1855.
Mare Island Straits,	In mid channel, between Commission Rock and western shore,	25	30.5	24.8	30.7	24.0	30.3	1856.
	In mid channel, between Navy Yard and Vallejo,	25	30.5	24.8	30.7	24.0	30.3	1856.
Ballenas Bay,	Inside of breakers on Duxbury reef, about a mile from shore,	24	28.2	23.6	28.6	22.9	28.4	1858.
Sir Francis Drake's Bay,	Half a mile inside the point, and 400 yards from shore,	17	21.2	16.6	21.6	15.9	21.4	1855.
Bodega Bay,	Half a mile inside of reef, anchorage, 900 yards from shore,	36	40.0	35.4	40.7	34.8	40.4	1858.
Coast,	At Haven's anchorage,	48	52.5	47.5	52.9	46.8	52.7	1858.
Albion River,	Anchorage at entrance,	48	52.5	47.5	52.9	46.8	52.7	1858.
Mendocino City,	Anchorage inside of point,	30	34.5	29.5	34.9	28.8	34.7	1858.
Shelter Cove,	Anchorage 500 yards inside of point,	23	26.5	21.5	26.9	20.8	26.7	1858.
Humboldt Bay,	On bar, half a mile from shore,	21	25.8	20.4	26.4	19.7	26.1	1858.
	Main channel,	20	24.8	19.4	25.4	18.7	25.1	1851.
Crescent City harbor,	Anchorage half a mile off Crescent City,	21	26.2	20.4	26.9	19.7	26.5	1858.
Port Orford, or Ewing harbor,	Anchorage three-fourths of a mile from Tichenor's Rock,	46	51.7	45.4	52.4	44.7	52.0	1858.
Umpquah River,	On bar, opposite mid-channel,	18	19.1	12.4	19.6	11.7	19.3	1858.
Columbia River,	North Channel to Baker's Bay,	24	30.5	23.4	30.9	22.7	30.6	1852.
	Entrance into South Channel,*	19	25.5	18.4	25.9	17.7	25.6	1852.
	On bar of South Channel,	16	22.5	15.4	22.9	14.7	22.6	1852.
Shoalwater Bay,	On bar,	18	24.5	17.1	25	16.4	24.5	1851.

* Twenty-one feet may be carried in at mean low water by keeping a little northward and westward, nearer the breakers of the middle sands, and, at the turn, hauling up for Cape Disappointment.

	North Channel,	22.5	..	29	..	21.6	..	29.5	..	30.9	..	29	.. ....
	South Channel,	25	..	31.5	..	24.1	..	33	..	23.4	..	31.5	.. 1858.
Grenville harbor,	Anchorage three-quarters of a mile inside of Point Grenville, and same distance from shore,	22	..	28.5	..	21.1	..	29	..	20.4	..	28.5	.. 1854.
Neé-ah harbor,	Anchorage a mile inside of Waddah Island, and 450 yards from shore,	36	..	42.4	..	34.8	..	43.0	..	34.1	..	42.5	.. 1851.
False Dungeness,	Harbor anchorage,	54	..	60.4	..	53.1	..	60.9	..	52.2	..	60.8	.. 1858.
New Dungeness,	Harbor anchorage,	45	..	51.4	..	44.1	..	51.7	..	43.2	..	51.8	.. 1855.
Smith's Island, (north side,).	Anchorage near kelp, 450 yards from shore,	25	..	31.4	..	24.4	..	31.7	..	23.3	..	32.2	.. 1854.
Bellingham Bay,		60	..	67	..	59.4	..	67.4	..	58.1	..	68	.. 1855.
	Anchorage 400 yards southwest of Fitzhugh's wharf,	18	..	25	..	17.4	..	25.4	..	16.1	..	26	.. 1855.
Port Townshend,	Anchorage 400 yards east of Custom House,	48	..	54.4	..	47.4	..	54.7	..	46.3	..	55.2	.. 1854.
Port Ludlow,	Anchorage,	36	..	45.2	..	37.2	..	45.8	..	34.2	..	46.4	.. 1855.
Port Gamble,	Anchorage,	18	..	27.2	..	17.2	..	27.8	..	16.2	..	28.4	.. 1855.
Seattle,	Anchorage,	20	..	29.2	..	18.2	..	29.8	..	18.2	..	30.4	.. 1854.
Blakely harbor,	Anchorage 450 yards inside of entrance,	46	..	55.2	..	45.2	..	55.8	..	44.2	..	56.4	.. 1856.
Steilacoom harbor,	Anchorage off Steilacoom creek, 400 yards,	18	..	30.0	..	17.0	..	30.9	..	16.1	..	31.7	.. 1855.
Olympia harbor,	Mid channel, town 1¼ miles distant, mission bearing E.NE.,	11	..	23	..	10	..	23.9	..	9.1	..	24.7	.. ....

In passing from New-York to an eastern port, the first great change in the tides and tidal currents is between the East River and Long Island Sound; the difference between Governor's Island and Negro Point on Ward's Island, at the eastern entrance to Hell Gate, is two hours and forty-five minutes. Between this point and Throg's Point the change is small. The mariner is now in the full tide of the Sound, and between Throg's Point and Fisher's Island there is a difference of time of but two hours and twenty minutes, the greatest part of which is at the head of the Sound and at its entrance—that is, near Throg's Point and Fisher's Island. From off New-London to off Sand's Point the difference is but one hour and forty minutes; so that if the mariner, instead of remaining at Throg's Point, passes onward to Fisher's Island, he would lose but half a tide in the whole passage.

[1] The depth in channel way varies between 6 and 8½ fathoms. [2] Two bars, each a quarter of a mile, have a less depth than 18 feet. [3] A small shoal, with 12 feet, lies in the middle of the kill, opposite the wharf at Blazing Star; and another, with 10 feet, a quarter of a mile to the northward; but deeper water is found on east side of both. [4] A shoal, of 4 feet, obstructs the eastern channel, half way between Chelsea and its junction with the main channel. [5] Channel very narrow in the vicinity of Black Beacon. [6] From Bergen Point light, half way to Newark Bay lighthouse, 17 feet may be carried. [7] In a straight line. [8] A shoal of 21.5 feet occurs about a mile below Sing Sing. [9] Soundings varying between 10 and 15 fathoms.

SHIP-BUILDING AND TONNAGE OF NEW-YORK.

In order to illustrate more fully the foreign commerce of the State of New-York, the following table will show what proportion of vessels entered these ports, compared with all others in the Union:

I. Statement exhibiting the number of American and Foreign Vessels, with their Tonnage and Crews, which entered into the several Districts of the State of New-York from Foreign Countries, during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1860.

Entered into	American Vessels.			Foreign Vessels.			Total.		
	No.	*Tons.*	*Men.*	*No.*	*Tons.*	*Men.*	*No.*	*Tons.*	*Men.*
Sackett's Harb., N.Y.,	132	98,651	4,005	..	..	..	132	98,651	4,005
Genesee, "	133	79,132	2,711	229	48,757	3,176	362	127,889	5,887
Oswego, "	691	230,547	6,082	1,817	214,900	11,577	2,508	445,447	17,609
Niagara, "	31	1,997	132	287	84,899	4,383	318	86,896	4,515
Buffalo, "	1,446	1,301,674	16,503	649	60,560	3,605	2,095	1,362,234	20,108
Oswegatchie, "	171	136,566	5,130	173	25,136	3,383	344	161,702	8,513
Sag Har. & Dunkirk,	30	1,140	100	16	638	67	46	1,778	167
New-York, "	2,645	1,356,665	41,495	1,387	617,147	25,288	3,982	1,973,812	66,783
Champlain, "	278	17,631	600	301	22,959	1,008	579	40,500	1,609
Cape Vincent, "	527	424,825	15,214	425	113,124	6,968	952	537,949	22,182
Total State of N. Y.,	6,084	3,648,828	91,922	5,234	1,187,620	59,405	11,318	4,836,448	151,327
" all other ports,	6,122	2,272,457	76,879	5,491	1,166,291	47,166	11,613	3,438,748	124,045
Total U. S., 1859-60,	12,206	5,921,285	168,801	10,725	2,353,911	106,571	22,931	8,275,196	275,372
" " 1858-59,	12,035	5,265,648	155,698	10,532	2,540,887	109,989	22,567	7,806,035	265,687
" " 1857-58,	10,735	4,395,642	141,897	10,037	2,209,403	102,476	20,772	6,605,045	244,373
" " 1856-57,	11,304	4,721,370	161,062	11,024	2,464,946	116,797	22,328	7,186,316	277,859
" " 1855-56,	10,307	4,385,484	148,189	11,375	2,486,769	118,984	21,682	6,872,253	267,173
" " 1854-55,	9,315	3,561,391	137,251	10,012	2,083,948	99,891	19,327	5,945,339	237,142

II. Statement showing the number and class of Vessels built, and the Tonnage thereof, in the State of New-York, during the year ending June 30, 1860.

Districts.	*Ships and Barks.*	*Brigs.*	*Schoon-ers.*	*Sloops and Canal Boats.*	*Steam-ers.*	*Total built.*	*Total tonnage.*
Champlain,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Sackett's Harbor,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Oswego,	..	..	10	22	..	32	3,987
Niagara,	..	..	1	..	..	1	116
Genesee,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Oswegatchie,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Buffalo,	..	..	2	11	10	23	3,786
Sag Harbor,	..	1	..	..	..	1	150
Greenport,	..	..	3	..	..	3	381
Dunkirk,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
New-York,	4	2	15	92	28	141	23,484
Cold Spring,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cape Vincent,	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total, 1859-60,	4	3	31	125	38	201	31,906
" 1858-59,	2	..	14	64	27	107	16,313
" 1857-58,	7	3	47	94	42	203	37,185
" 1856-57,	28	5	76	83	45	237	67,826
" 1855-56,	24	7	87	161	27	306	76,301
" 1854-55,	45	7	98	356	48	554	115,231

III. STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER AND CLASS OF VESSELS BUILT, AND THE TONNAGE THEREOF, IN THE SEVERAL STATES AND TERRITORIES OF THE UNITED STATES, FROM 1815 TO JUNE 30, 1860, INCLUSIVE.

YEARS.	*Ships and Barks.*	*Brigs.*	*Schooners.*	*Sloops and Canal Boats.*	*Steamers.*	*Total built.*	*Total tonnage.*
1815,....	136	224	681	274	..	1,315	154,624
1816,....	76	122	781	424	..	1,403	181,668
1817,....	84	86	559	394	..	1,073	86,293
1818,....	58	85	428	332	..	898	82,421
1819,....	58	82	473	242	..	850	79,817
1820,....	21	60	301	152	..	524	47,734
1821,....	48	89	247	127	..	507	55,556
1822,....	64	131	260	168	..	623	75,846
1823,....	55	127	260	165	15	622	75,007
1824,....	56	156	377	166	26	781	90,939
1825,....	56	197	538	163	35	994	114,997
1826,....	71	187	482	227	45	1,012	126,488
1827,....	55	158	464	241	38	984	108,342
1828,....	78	108	474	196	38	894	93,875
1829,....	44	69	485	145	43	785	77,098
1830,....	25	56	408	116	37	637	58,094
1831,....	72	95	416	94	34	711	85,963
1832,....	133	143	568	122	100	1,065	141,589
1833,....	144	169	625	185	65	1,188	161,626
1834,....	93	94	497	180	68	987	118,880
1835,....	25	50	301	100	30	507	46,288
1836,....	93	65	444	164	124	890	118,627
1837,....	67	73	507	168	135	949	122,987
1838,....	66	79	501	158	90	893	113,185
1839,....	83	89	439	122	125	858	120,989
1840,....	97	109	378	224	64	872	118,809
1841,....	114	101	310	157	78	762	118,893
1842,....	116	91	278	404	187	1,021	129,088
1843,....	58	84	188	178	79	482	48,617
1844,....	78	47	204	279	168	766	103,537
1845,....	124	87	322	342	163	1,038	146,018
1846,....	100	164	576	355	225	1,420	188,308
1847,....	151	168	659	392	198	1,598	243,782
1848,....	254	174	701	547	175	1,851	318,075
1849,....	198	143	628	370	208	1,547	256,577
1850,....	247	117	547	290	159	1,360	272,218
1851,....	211	65	522	326	223	1,367	298,208
1852,....	255	79	534	267	259	1,444	351,498
1853,....	269	95	681	394	271	1,710	425,573
1854,....	334	112	661	386	281	1,774	585,616
1855,....	381	126	605	669	253	2,034	583,450
1856,....	306	108	594	479	221	1,708	469,393
1857,....	251	58	504	359	263	1,434	378,804
1858,....	122	46	431	400	226	1,225	242,286
1859,....	69	28	297	284	172	870	156,601
1860,....	110	86	372	289	264	1,071	212,592

IV. VESSELS AND TONNAGE CLEARED FROM THE DISTRICT OF NEW-YORK.

	AMERICAN.		FOREIGN.		TOTAL.	
Fiscal Years.	*Vessels.*	*Tonnage.*	*Vessels.*	*Tonnage.*	*Vessels.*	*Tonnage.*
1826,.....	....	208,202 ..	....	19,655 ..	....	227,857
1830,.....	....	210,535 ..	....	32,620 ..	....	243,155
1835,.....	1,226 ..	289,268 ..	433 ..	77,121 ..	1,659 ..	366,389
1840,.....	1,067 ..	283,149 ..	503 ..	125,619 ..	1,570 ..	408,768
1845,.....	1,127 ..	341,094 ..	561 ..	142,431 ..	1,688 ..	483,525
1850,.....	1,379 ..	596,812 ..	1,230 ..	385,666 ..	2,609 ..	982,478
1855,.....	1,941 ..	1,091,244 ..	1,169 ..	354,510 ..	3,110 ..	1,445,754
1857,.....	2,307 ..	1,310,875 ..	1,047 ..	445,566 ..	3,354 ..	1,756,441
1858,.....	1,901 ..	1,027,390 ..	936 ..	433,608 ..	2,837 ..	1,460,998
1859,.....	1,911 ..	925,528 ..	1,175 ..	550,751 ..	3,086 ..	1,476,279
1860,.....	2,026 ..	1,056,486 ..	1,376 ..	622,419 ..	3,402 ..	1,678,905

V. STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE NUMBER OF AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VESSELS, WITH THEIR TONNAGE AND CREWS, WHICH ENTERED INTO THE DISTRICT OF NEW-YORK, AND THE COUNTRIES FROM WHENCE THEY ARRIVED, DURING THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1860.

ENTERED FROM	AMERICAN VESSELS.			FOREIGN VESSELS.			TOTAL.		
	No.	Tons.	Men.	No.	Tons.	Men.	No.	Tons.	Men.
Russia on the North,	7	4,584	125	..	..	..	7	4,584	125
Prussia,	..	..	..	1	310	10	1	310	10
Sweden and Norway,	2	1,099	26	1	251	9	3	1,350	35
Swedish West Indies,	3	452	17	1	122	6	4	574	23
Danish West Indies,	7	1,378	58	4	1,570	47	11	2,948	105
Hamburg,	2	1,584	40	42	56,951	2,467	44	58,535	2,507
Bremen,	..	..	..	64	57,972	2,102	64	57,972	2,102
Holland,	14	10,370	260	15	8,781	254	29	19,151	514
Dutch West Indies,	43	8,749	325	5	899	38	48	9,648	363
Dutch East Indies,	4	2,074	70	..	..	..	4	2,074	70
Belgium,	18	15,528	347	2	1,453	42	20	16,976	389
England,	357	384,168	8,725	149	219,199	9,389	506	603,367	18,114
Scotland,	26	16,810	427	45	34,542	1,377	71	51,352	1,804
Ireland,	1	1,115	24	12	20,926	1,065	13	22,041	1,089
Gibraltar,	2	425	15	4	794	32	6	1,219	47
Malta,	..	..	..	1	219	8	1	219	8
Canada,	4	1,078	32	3	385	18	7	1,463	50
Other British N. Am. Poss.,	60	11,098	405	414	68,363	2,711	474	79,461	3,116
British West Indies,	168	34,858	1,334	140	25,228	1,077	308	60,081	2,411
British Honduras,	12	3,782	128	..	..	..	12	3,782	128
British Guiana,	8	2,613	88	2	340	15	10	2,953	103
British Possessions in Africa,	9	2,185	81	5	978	40	14	3,163	121
British Australia,	6	1,469	51	..	..	..	6	1,469	51
British East Indies,	31	29,384	711	3	1,740	45	34	31,124	756
France on the Atlantic,	94	124,589	4,260	18	6,762	216	112	131,351	4,476
France on Mediterranean,	18	7,205	209	26	9,410	308	44	16,615	517
French North Amer'n Poss.,	..	..	..	7	887	58	7	887	58
French West Indies,	1	178	6	5	690	49	6	868	55
Spain on the Atlantic,	12	3,685	113	2	434	18	14	4,119	131
Spain on the Mediterranean,	37	9,965	324	24	4,896	149	61	14,861	523
Canary Islands,	8	2,342	73	2	480	19	10	2,822	92
Philippine Islands,	18	19,584	453	1	804	22	19	20,388	475
Cuba,	840	306,571	10,526	85	28,082	1,206	925	336,603	11,732
Porto Rico,	154	31,715	1,230	55	10,245	404	209	51,960	1,634
Portugal,	..	..	..	11	2,556	98	11	2,556	98
Azores,	1	699	23	1	197	8	2	896	31
Madeira,	1	259	7	..	..	..	1	259	7
Sardinia,	5	1,627	56	7	3,087	119	12	4,714	175
Tuscany,	23	18,718	438	4	2,241	60	27	20,954	498
Papal States,	..	..	..	1	170	8	1	170	8
Two Sicilies,	44	15,146	458	38	12,124	473	82	27,270	931
Austria,	6	2,460	79	13	3,730	123	19	6,190	202
Greece,	1	248	8	6	1,241	48	7	1,489	56
Turkey in Asia,	4	1,109	44	6	3,302	102	10	4,411	146
Egypt,	1	299	9	3	659	27	4	958	36
Other ports in Africa,	19	6,062	197	2	499	18	21	6,561	215
Hayti,	90	16,958	675	20	3,092	182	110	19,055	807
San Domingo,	17	3,148	124	23	4,056	182	40	7,204	306
Mexico,	55	17,941	568	5	1,643	43	60	18,984	611
Central Republic,	6	1,116	42	3	516	22	9	1,632	64
New-Granada,	100	97,980	4,401	5	1,286	42	105	99,166	4,443
Venezuela,	47	10,230	398	9	1,762	78	56	11,992	466
Brazil,	137	38,701	1,805	36	9,297	337	173	47,998	1,642
Uruguay, or Cisplatine Rep.,	10	3,468	113	..	..	..	10	3,468	113
Buenos Ayres, or Arg. Rep.,	40	13,914	430	1	293	10	41	14,207	440
Chili,	6	3,750	94	..	..	..	6	3,750	94
Peru,	10	10,675	229	..	..	..	10	10,675	229
Sandwich Islands,	3	1,072	34	2	448	17	5	1,520	51
Other Islands in the Pacific,	3	2,194	55	..	..	..	3	2,194	55
China,	50	47,934	1,230	3	1,880	45	53	49,814	1,275
Total 1859–60,	2,645	1,356,665	41,495	1,337	617,147	25,238	3,992	1,973,812	66,733
" 1858–59,	2,657	1,320,290	40,011	1,245	569,854	23,628	3,902	1,890,144	63,634
" 1857–58,	2,401	1,273,788	39,666	929	420,431	17,188	3,330	1,694,219	56,849
" 1856–57,	3,014	1,584,764	49,759	1,054	450,885	18,028	4,068	2,035,649	67,787
" 1855–56,	2,496	1,381,726	..	1,033	299,933	..	3,529	1,681,659	..
" 1854–55,	2,588	1,377,738	41,933	1,185	358,169	13,263	3,773	1,735,907	55,246

VI. The increase in the amount of tonnage employed in steam navigation since 1848, and owned in the District of New-York, exhibited in the following table:

	Registered.		Enrolled and Licensed.		Total.	
Years.	*Tons.*	95*ths.*	*Tons.*	95*ths.*	*Tons.*	95*ths.*
1848,.....	6,523 ..	73 ..	57,705 ..	41 ..	64,229 ..	19
1849,.....	10,642 ..	76 ..	61,175 ..	92 ..	71,818 ..	73
1850,.....	36,148 ..	47 ..	58,967 ..	9 ..	85,115 ..	56
1851,.....	52,392 ..	68 ..	69,148 ..	89 ..	121,541 ..	62
1852,.....	63,860 ..	33 ..	77,063 ..	84 ..	140,924 ..	22
1853,.....	76,851 ..	78 ..	88,311 ..	53 ..	165,163 ..	36
1854,.....	82,607 ..	73 ..	101,487 ..	41 ..	184,095 ..	19
1855,.....	89,105 ..	9 ..	107,692 ..	88 ..	196,798 ..	2
1856,.....	68,777 ..	26 ..	107,820 ..	67 ..	176,597 ..	93
1857,.....	69,051 ..	67 ..	111,526 ..	89 ..	180,578 ..	61
1858,.....	65,594 ..	89 ..	118,638 ..	88 ..	184,233 ..	82
1859,.....	70,897 ..	52 ..	120,498 ..	09 ..	191,395 ..	61
1860,.....	72,929 ..	55 ..	132,580 ..	77 ..	205,510 ..	37

VII. Recapitulation of the number and class of Vessels built in each State of the Union during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1860. (*Official.*)

	Class of Vessels.						
States and Territories.	*Ships and barks.*	*Brigs.*	*Schoon-ers.*	*Sloops and canal boats.*	*Steam-ers.*	*Total built.*	*Total tonnage.*
Maine,.....	43 ..	20 ..	95 ..	2 ..	2 ..	172 ..	57,867
New-Hampshire,.....	4 ..	.. ..	.. ..	1 ..	.. ..	5 ..	3,808
Vermont,.....	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	2 ..	.. ..	2 ..	110
Massachusetts,.....	30 ..	2 ..	91 ..	2 ..	7 ..	132 ..	33,461
Rhode Island,.....	2 ..	1 ..	.. ..	.. ..	1 ..	4 ..	1,895
Connecticut,.....	6 ..	1 ..	15 ..	2 ..	4 ..	35 ..	7,758
New-York,.....	4 ..	3 ..	31 ..	135 ..	38 ..	201 ..	31,936
New-Jersey,.....	.. ..	.. ..	20 ..	17 ..	1 ..	38 ..	4,264
Pennsylvania,.....	1 ..	2 ..	16 ..	68 ..	65 ..	152 ..	21,615
Delaware,.....	.. ..	.. ..	7 ..	1 ..	6 ..	14 ..	5,826
Maryland,.....	8 ..	6 ..	24 ..	2 ..	3 ..	43 ..	7,798
District of Columbia,.....	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	36 ..	.. ..	36 ..	2,458
Virginia,.....	1 ..	1 ..	3 ..	4 ..	17 ..	26 ..	4,372
North Carolina,.....	.. ..	.. ..	9 ..	5 ..	3 ..	17 ..	864
South Carolina,.....	.. ..	.. ..	1 ..	.. ..	1 ..	2 ..	72
Georgia,.....	. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	4 ..	4 ..	667
Florida,.....	.. ..	.. ..	2 ..	.. ..	1 ..	3 ..	255
Alabama,.....	.. ..	.. ..	3 ..	.. ..	5 ..	8 ..	1,189
Mississippi,.....	.. ..	.. ..	5 ..	1 ..	1 ..	7 ..	326
Louisiana,.....	.. ..	.. ..	4 ..	.. ..	8 ..	12 ..	1,500
Tennessee,.....	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	5 ..	5 ..	433
Kentucky,.....	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	29 ..	29 ..	3,681
Missouri,.....	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	13 ..	13 ..	4,061
Illinois,.....	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	....
Ohio,.....	.. ..	.. ..	5 ..	3 ..	32 ..	40 ..	6,192
Wisconsin,.....	.. ..	.. ..	1 ..	.. ..	1 ..	2 ..	96
Michigan,.....	1 ..	.. ..	6 ..	3 ..	3 ..	23 ..	2,908
Texas,.....	.. ..	.. ..	14 ..	1 ..	1 ..	16 ..	1,006
California,.....	.. ..	.. ..	20 ..	2 ..	3 ..	30 ..	2,023
Oregon,.....	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	....
Washington Territory,.....	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	....
Total, 1859–60,.....	110 ..	36 ..	372 ..	289 ..	264 ..	1,071 ..	212,892
" 1858–59,.....	89 ..	28 ..	297 ..	284 ..	172 ..	870 ..	156,602
" 1857–58,.....	122 ..	46 ..	431 ..	400 ..	226 ..	1,225 ..	242,286
" 1856–57,.....	251 ..	58 ..	504 ..	358 ..	263 ..	1,434 ..	378,804
" 1855–56,.....	306 ..	108 ..	594 ..	479 ..	221 ..	1,708 ..	469,398
" 1854–55,.....	381 ..	126 ..	605 ..	669 ..	243 ..	2,024 ..	583,450

VIII. STATEMENT OF THE VESSELS CLEARED FROM THE SEVERAL STATES FOR FOREIGN COUNTRIES, DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1860.

STATES.	AMERICAN VESSELS.				FOREIGN VESSELS.				TOTAL AMERICAN AND FOREIGN.			
	Number.	Tons.	Crews.		Number.	Tons.	Crews.		Number.	Tons.	Crews.	
			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.
New-York,	5,460	3,888,585	89,858	1,827	5,188	1,190,750	59,198	581	10,648	4,574,285	149,056	1,908
Maine,	825	205,107	6,790	13	602	103,974	5,678	4	1,427	309,081	12,468	17
New-Hampshire,	5	1,676	41	..	58	5,312	283	8	63	6,988	324	8
Vermont,	188	9,929	540	..	164	13,581	607	..	347	23,460	1,147	..
Massachusetts,	1,069	312,817	12,379	44	2,709	434,092	18,559	75	3,778	746,909	30,988	119
Rhode Island,	57	11,292	438	6	65	12,114	464	..	122	23,406	902	6
Connecticut,	102	18,833	959	32	77	13,554	525	..	179	32,187	1,484	32
New-Jersey,	20	6,516	188	5	16	2,511	95	..	36	9,027	283	5
Pennsylvania,	340	103,045	3,489	..	163	39,298	1,384	..	503	142,343	4,873	..
Delaware,	12	2,169	86	..	3	414	21	..	15	2,583	107	..
Maryland,	385	115,733	3,928	..	208	58,267	2,208	..	593	174,000	6,136	..
District of Columbia,	..	..	..	..	2	275	12	..	2	275	12	..
Virginia,	180	59,611	1,854	..	88	20,770	760	..	268	80,381	2,614	..
North Carolina,	185	28,000	1,280	2	38	8,707	325	..	223	36,707	1,555	2
South Carolina,	269	133,802	4,010	..	142	49,451	1,844	..	411	183,253	5,854	..
Georgia,	212	108,123	2,815	..	124	61,649	1,870	4	336	169,772	4,685	4
Alabama,	245	186,547	3,826	525	98	68,840	1,825	257	343	255,387	5,651	782
Florida,	402	85,378	3,674	..	54	11,616	555	2	456	96,989	4,229	2
Louisiana,	958	718,588	18,378	..	335	180,765	5,700	..	1,293	894,353	24,078	..
Texas,	70	34,205	904	..	38	14,558	488	2	108	48,763	1,387	2
Ohio,	166	26,671	1,129	..	222	25,246	1,292	..	388	51,917	2,421	..
Michigan,	989	187,042	7,600	..	341	249,709	7,166	..	1,290	436,751	14,766	..
Illinois,	180	61,282	1,868	..	24	6,670	229	..	154	67,952	2,097	..
Wisconsin,	78	49,497	1,642	..	8	2,006	72	..	86	51,503	1,714	..
California,	371	302,285	10,402	..	143	49,688	2,154	..	514	351,923	12,556	..
Oregon,	19	19,446	763	..	2	288	84	..	21	19,734	797	..
Total cleared 1859–60,	12,682	6,165,924	178,791	1,954	10,912	2,624,005	113,843	933	23,594	8,789,929	292,134	2,887
Total entered 1859–60,	12,206	5,921,285	168,801	1,299	10,725	2,353,911	106,571	971	22,931	8,275,196	275,372	2,270

IX. The following statements from the annual reports of the Secretary of the United States Treasury exhibits the registered, enrolled and licensed tonnage, and the total tonnage belonging to the district of New-York, in each decennial year from 1825:

	Registered.		*Enrolled and Licensed.*		*Total.*	
Years.	Tons.	95ths.	Tons.	95ths.	Tons.	95ths.
1825,....	156,728 ..	14 ..	147,756 ..	8 ..	304,484 ..	22
1835,....	191,626 ..	43 ..	185,071 ..	29 ..	376,697 ..	72
1845,....	248,717 ..	.. ..	301,642 ..	48 ..	550,359 ..	48
1855,....	737,509 ..	37 ..	550,725 ..	29 ..	1,288,234 ..	66
1857,....	802,356 ..	10 ..	575,068 ..	51 ..	1,377,424 ..	61
1858,....	840,449 ..	08 ..	592,256 ..	33 ..	1,432,705 ..	41
1859,....	844,432 ..	24 ..	599,928 ..	44 ..	1,444,360 ..	68
1860,....	838,449 ..	51 ..	625,551 ..	47 ..	1,464,001 ..	03

X. Vessels and Tonnage entered into the District of New-York, 1826—1860.

	American.		*Foreign.*		*Total.*	
Fiscal Years.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
1826,..	.... ..	248,176 ..	.... ..	26,285 ..	.... ..	274,461
1830,..	.... ..	273,790 ..	.... ..	31,391 ..	.... ..	305,181
1835,..	1,528 ..	374,602 ..	480 ..	91,063 ..	2,008 ..	465,665
1840,..	1,443 ..	417,443 ..	512 ..	128,488 ..	1,955 ..	545,931
1845,..	1,450 ..	439,670 ..	558 ..	139,542 ..	2,008 ..	579,218
1850,..	1,882 ..	734,431 ..	1,281 ..	410,900 ..	3,163 ..	1,145,331
1855,..	2,588 ..	1,377,738 ..	1,185 ..	358,169 ..	3,773 ..	1,735,907
1857,..	3,014 ..	1,584,764 ..	1,054 ..	450,885 ..	4,068 ..	2,035,649
1858,..	2,401 ..	1,273,788 ..	929 ..	420,431 ..	3,330 ..	1,694,219
1859,..	2,657 ..	1,320,290 ..	1,245 ..	569,854 ..	3,902 ..	1,890,144
1860,..	2,645 ..	1,356,665 ..	1,337 ..	617,147 ..	3,982 ..	1,973,812

XI. Statement exhibiting the amount of the Tonnage of the United States at various periods, also the Registered, and Enrolled and Licensed Tonnage employed in Steam Navigation each year.

Years.	Registered Sail Tonnage.	Registered Steam.	Enrolled and Licensed Sail.	Enrolled and Licensed Steam.	Total Tonnage.
	Tons.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*
1830,.....	575,056 ..	1,419 ..	552,248 ..	63,053 ..	1,191,776
1831,.....	619,575 ..	877 ..	613,827 ..	33,568 ..	1,267,847
1832,.....	686,809 ..	181 ..	661,827 ..	90,633 ..	1,439,450
1833,.....	749,482 ..	545 ..	754,819 ..	101,305 ..	1,606,151
1834,.....	857,098 ..	340 ..	778,995 ..	122,474 ..	1,758,907
1835,.....	885,481 ..	340 ..	816,645 ..	122,474 ..	1,824,940
1845,.....	1,088,680 ..	6,492 ..	1,002,303 ..	319,527 ..	2,417,002
1846,.....	1,123,999 ..	6,287 ..	1,090,192 ..	341,606 ..	2,562,084
1847,.....	1,235,682 ..	5,631 ..	1,198,523 ..	399,210 ..	2,839,046
1848,.....	1,344,819 ..	16,068 ..	1,381,332 ..	411,823 ..	3,154,042
1849,.....	1,418,072 ..	20,870 ..	1,453,549 ..	441,525 ..	3,334,016
1850,.....	1,540,769 ..	44,942 ..	1,468,738 ..	481,005 ..	3,535,454
1851,.....	1,663,917 ..	62,390 ..	1,524,915 ..	521,217 ..	3,772,439
1852,.....	1,819,744 ..	79,704 ..	1,675,456 ..	563,536 ..	4,138,440
1853,.....	2,013,154 ..	90,520 ..	1,789,238 ..	514,098 ..	4,407,010
1854,.....	2,238,783 ..	95,036 ..	1,887,512 ..	581,571 ..	4,802,902
1855,.....	2,420,091 ..	115,045 ..	2,021,625 ..	655,240 ..	5,212,001
1856,.....	2,401,687 ..	89,715 ..	1,796,888 ..	583,362 ..	4,871,652
1857,.....	2,377,094 ..	86,873 ..	1,857,964 ..	618,911 ..	4,940,842
1858,.....	2,499,742 ..	78,027 ..	2,550,067 ..	651,363 ..	5,049,808
1859,.....	2,414,654 ..	92,748 ..	1,961,631 ..	676,005 ..	5,145,038
1860,.....	2,448,941 ..	97,296 ..	2,036,990 ..	770,641 ..	5,353,868

COMMERCIAL TREATIES WITH FOREIGN NATIONS, YEAR 1860.

I. JAPAN.

BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA:

A PROCLAMATION.

WHEREAS a treaty of amity and commerce between the United States and the Empire of Japan was concluded and signed by their respective plenipotentiaries at the City of Yedo, on the twenty-ninth day of July, one thousand eight hundred and fifty-eight, which treaty is word for word as follows:

The President of the United States of America and his Majesty the Ty-Coon of Japan, desiring to establish on firm and lasting foundations the relations of peace and friendship now happily existing between the two countries, and to secure the best interest of their respective citizens and subjects by encouraging, facilitating and regulating their industry and trade, have resolved to conclude a treaty of amity and commerce for this purpose, and have, therefore, named as their plenipotentiaries, that is to say: The President of the United States, His Excellency TOWNSEND HARRIS, Consul-General of the United States of America for the empire of Japan, and His Majesty the Ty-Coon of Japan, their Excellencies INO-OO-YE, Prince of Sinano, and IWASAY, Prince of Hego, who, after having communicated to each other their respective full powers, and found them to be in good and due form, have agreed upon and concluded the following articles:

ARTICLE I.

There shall henceforward be perpetual peace and friendship between the United States of America and His Majesty the Ty-Coon of Japan and his successors.

The President of the United States may appoint a diplomatic agent to reside at the city of Yedo, and consuls or consular agents to reside at any or all of the ports in Japan which are opened for American commerce by this treaty. The diplomatic agent and consul-general of the United States shall have the right to travel freely in any part of the empire of Japan from the time they enter on the discharge of their official duties.

The government of Japan may appoint a diplomatic agent to reside at Washington, and consuls or consular agents for any or all of the ports of the United States. The diplomatic agent and consul-general of Japan may travel freely in any part of the United States from the time they arrive in the country.

ARTICLE II.

The President of the United States, at the request of the Japanese

government, will act as a friendly mediator in such matters of difference as may arise between the government of Japan and any European power.

The ships of war of the United States shall render friendly aid and assistance to such Japanese vessels as they may meet on the high seas, so far as can be done without a breach of neutrality; and all American consuls residing at ports visited by Japanese vessels shall also give them such friendly aid as may be permitted by the laws of the respective countries in which they reside.

ARTICLE III.

In addition to the ports of Simoda and Hakodade, the following ports and towns shall be opened on the dates respectively appended to them, that is to say: Kanagawa, on the (4th of July, 1859) fourth day of July, one thousand eight hundred and fifty-nine; Nagasaki, on the (4th of July, 1859) fourth day of July, one thousand eight hundred and fifty-nine; Nee-e-gata, on the (1st of January, 1860) first day of January, one thousand eight hundred and sixty; Hiogo, on the (1st of January, 1863) first day of January, one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three.

If Nee-e-gata is found to be unsuitable as a harbor, another port on the west coast of Nipon shall be selected by the two governments in lieu thereof. Six months after the opening of Kanagawa, the port of Simoda shall be closed as a place of residence and trade for American citizens. In all the foregoing ports and towns American citizens may permanently reside; they shall have the right to lease ground, and purchase the buildings thereon, and may erect dwellings and warehouses. But no fortification or place of military strength shall be erected under pretence of building dwellings or warehouses; and to see that this article is observed, the Japanese authorities shall have the right to inspect, from time time, any buildings which are being erected, altered or repaired. The place which the Americans shall occupy for their buildings, and the harbor regulations, shall be arranged by the American consul and the authorities of each place, and if they cannot agree, the matter shall be referred to and settled by the American diplomatic agent and the Japanese government.

No wall, fence or gate shall be erected by the Japanese around the place of residence of the Americans, or any thing done which may prevent a free egress and ingress to the same.

From the (1st of January, 1862) first day of January, one thousand eight hundred and sixty-two, Americans shall be allowed to reside in the city of Yedo; and from the (1st of January, 1863) first day of January, one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, in the city of Osaca, for the purposes of trade only. In each of these two cities a suitable place within which they may hire houses, and the distance they may go, shall be arranged by the American diplomatic agent and the government of Japan. Americans may freely buy from Japanese and sell to them any articles that either may have for sale, without the intervention of any Japanese officers in such purchase or sale, or in making or receiving payment for the same; and all classes of Japanese may purchase, sell, keep or use any articles sold to them by the Americans.

The Japanese government will cause this clause to be made public in every part of the empire as soon as the ratifications of this treaty shall be exchanged.

Munitions of war shall only be sold to the Japanese government and foreigners.

No rice or wheat shall be exported from Japan as cargo, but all Americans resident in Japan, and ships, for their crews and passengers, shall be furnished with sufficient supplies of the same. The Japanese government will sell, from time to time at public auction, any surplus quantity of copper that may be produced. Americans residing in Japan shall have the right to employ Japanese as servants or in any other capacity.

ARTICLE IV.

Duties shall be paid to the government of Japan on all goods landed in the country, and on all articles of Japanese production that are exported as cargo, according to the tariff hereunto appended.

If the Japanese custom-house officers are dissatisfied with the value placed on any goods by the owner, they may place a value thereon, and offer to take the goods at that valuation. If the owner refuses to accept the offer, he shall pay duty on such valuation. If the offer be accepted by the owner, the purchase-money shall be paid to him without delay, and without any abatement or discount.

Supplies for the use of the United States navy may be landed at Kanagawa, Hakodade and Nagasaki, and stored in warehouses, in the custody of an officer of the American government, without the payment of any duty. But, if any such supplies are sold in Japan, the purchaser shall pay the proper duty to the Japanese authorities.

The importation of opium is prohibited, and any American vessel coming to Japan for the purposes of trade, having more than three (3) catties (four pounds avoirdupois) weight of opium on board, such surplus quantity shall be seized and destroyed by the Japanese authorities. All goods imported into Japan, and which have paid the duty fixed by this treaty, may be transported by the Japanese into any part of the empire without the payment of any tax, excise or transit duty whatever.

No higher duties shall be paid by Americans on goods imported into Japan than are fixed by this treaty, nor shall any higher duties be paid by Americans than are levied on the same description of goods if imported in Japanese vessels, or the vessels of any other nation.

ARTICLE V.

All foreign coin shall be current in Japan, and pass for its corresponding weight of Japanese coin of the same description. Americans and Japanese may freely use foreign or Japanese coin in making payments to each other.

As some time will elapse before the Japanese will be acquainted with the value of foreign coin, the Japanese government will, for the period of one year after the opening of each harbor, furnish the Americans with Japanese coin, in exchange for theirs, equal weights being given and no discount taken for recoinage. Coins of all description (with the exception of Japanese copper coin) may be exported from Japan, and foreign gold and silver uncoined.

ARTICLE VI.

Americans committing offences against Japanese shall be tried in American consular courts, and, when guilty, shall be punished according to American law. Japanese committing offences against Americans shall be tried by the Japanese authorities and punished according to Japanese

law. The consular courts shall be open to Japanese creditors, to enable them to recover their just claims against American citizens, and the Japanese courts shall in like manner be open to American citizens for the recovery of their just claims against Japanese.

All claims for forfeitures or penalties for violations of this treaty, or of the articles regulating trade which are appended hereunto, shall be sued for in the consular courts, and all recoveries shall be delivered to the Japanese authorities.

Neither the American or Japanese governments are to be held responsible for the payment of any debts contracted by their respective citizens or subjects.

ARTICLE VII.

In the opened harbors of Japan, Americans shall be free to go where they please, within the following limits:

At Kanagawa, the river Logo, (which empties into the bay of Yedo between Kawasaki and Sinagawa) and (10) ten ri in any other direction.

At Hakodade, (10) ten ri in any direction.

At Hiogo, (10) ten ri in any direction, that of Kioto excepted, which city shall not be approached nearer than (10) ten ri. The crews of vessels resorting to Hiogo shall not cross the river Enagawa, which empties into the bay between Hiogo and Osaca. The distances shall be measured inland from Goyoso, or town hall of each of the foregoing harbors, the ri being equal to (4,275) four thousand two hundred and seventy-five yards, American measure.

At Nagasaki, Americans may go into any part of the imperial domain in its vicinity. The boundaries of Nee-e-gata, or the place that may be substituted for it, shall be settled by the American diplomatic agent and the government of Japan. Americans who have been convicted of felony, or twice convicted of misdemeanors, shall not go more than (1) one Japanese ri inland from the places of their respective residences, and all persons so convicted shall lose their right of permanent residence in Japan, and the Japanese authorities may require them to leave the country.

A reasonable time shall be allowed to all such persons to settle their affairs, and the American consular authority shall, after an examination into the circumstances of each case, determine the time to be allowed, but such time shall not in any case exceed one year, to be calculated from the time the person shall be free to attend to his affairs.

ARTICLE VIII.

Americans in Japan shall be allowed the free exercise of their religion, and for this purpose shall have the right to erect suitable places of worship. No injury shall be done to such buildings, nor any insult be offered to the religious worship of the Americans. American citizens shall not injure any Japanese temple or mia, or offer any insult or injury to Japanese religious ceremonies, or to the objects of their worship.

The Americans and Japanese shall not do any thing that may be calculated to excite religious animosity. The government of Japan has already abolished the practice of trampling on religious emblems.

ARTICLE IX.

When requested by the American consul, the Japanese authorities will

cause the arrest of all deserters and fugitives from justice, receive in jail all persons held as prisoners by the consul, and give to the consul such assistance as may be required to enable him to enforce the observance of the laws by the Americans who are on land, and to maintain order among the shipping. For all such service, and for the support of prisoners kept in confinement, the consul shall in all cases pay a just compensation.

ARTICLE X.

The Japanese government may purchase or construct, in the United States, ships of war, steamers, merchant ships, whale ships, cannon, munitions of war and arms of all kinds, and any other things it may require. It shall have the right to engage, in the United States, scientific, naval and military men, artisans of all kinds, and mariners to enter into its service. All purchases made for the government of Japan may be exported from the United States, and all persons engaged for its service may freely depart from the United States: *Provided*, That no articles that are contraband of war shall be exported, nor any persons engaged to act in a naval or military capacity, while Japan shall be at war with any power in amity with the United States.

ARTICLE XI.

The articles for the regulation of trade, which are appended to this treaty, shall be considered as forming a part of the same, and shall be equally binding on both the contracting parties to this treaty, and on their citizens and subjects.

ARTICLE XII.

Such of the provisions of the treaty made by Commodore Perry, and signed at Kanagawa, on the 31st of March, 1854, as conflict with the provisions of this treaty, are hereby revoked; and as all the provisions of a convention executed by the consul-general of the United States and the governors of Simoda, on the 17th of June, 1857, are incorporated in this treaty, that convention is also revoked.

The person charged with the diplomatic relations of the United States in Japan, in conjunction with such person or persons as may be appointed for that purpose by the Japanese government, shall have power to make such rules and regulations as may be required to carry into full and complete effect the provisions of this treaty, and the provisions of the articles regulating trade appended thereunto.

ARTICLE XIII.

After the (4th of July, 1872) fourth day of July, one thousand eight hundred and seventy-two, upon the desire of either the American or Japanese governments, and on one year's notice given by either party, this treaty, and such portions of the treaty of Kanagawa as remain unrevoked by this treaty, together with the regulations of trade hereunto annexed, or those that may be hereafter introduced, shall be subject to revision by commissioners appointed on both sides for this purpose, who will be empowered to decide on, and insert therein, such amendments as experience shall prove to be desirable.

ARTICLE XIV.

This treaty shall go into effect on the (4th of July, 1859,) fourth

day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and fifty-nine, on or before which day the ratifications of the same shall be exchanged at the city of Washington; but if, from any unforeseen cause, the ratifications cannot be exchanged by that time, the treaty shall still go into effect at the date above mentioned.

The act of ratification on the part of the United States shall be verified by the signature of the President of the United States, countersigned by the Secretary of State, and sealed with the seal of the United States.

The act of ratification on the part of Japan shall be verified by the name and seal of His Majesty the Ty-Coon, and by the seals and signatures of such of his high officers as he may direct.

This treaty is executed in quadruplicate, each copy being written in the English, Japanese and Dutch languages, all the versions having the same meaning and intention, but the Dutch version shall be considered as being the original.

In witness whereof, the above-named plenipotentiaries have hereunto set their hands and seals, at the city of Yedo, this twenty-ninth day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and fifty-eight, and of the independence of the United States of America the eighty-third, corresponding to the Japanese era, the nineteenth day of the sixth month of the fifth year of Ansei Mma.

TOWNSEND HARRIS. [SEAL.]

Regulations under which American Trade is to be conducted with Japan.

Within (48) forty-eight hours (Sundays excepted) after the arrival of an American ship in a Japanese port, the captain or commander shall exhibit to the Japanese custom-house authorities the receipt of the American consul, showing that he has deposited the ship's register and other papers, as required by the laws of the United States, at the American consulate, and he shall then make an entry of his ship, by giving a written paper, stating the name of the ship, and the name of the port from which she comes, her tonnage, the name of her captain or commander, the names of her passengers, (if any,) and the number of her crew, which paper shall be certified by the captain or commander to be a true statement, and shall be signed by him; he shall at the same time deposit a written manifest of his cargo, setting forth the marks and numbers of the packages and their contents, as they are described in his bills of lading, with the names of the person or persons to whom they are consigned. A list of the stores of the ship shall be added to the manifest. The captain or commander shall certify the manifest to be a true account of all the cargo and stores on board the ship, and shall sign his name to the same. If any error is discovered in the manifest, it may be corrected within (24) twenty-four hours (Sundays excepted) without the payment of any fee; but for any alteration or post entry to the manifest made after that time, a fee of ($15) fifteen dollars shall be paid. All goods not entered on the manifest shall pay double duties on being landed. Any captain or commander that shall neglect to enter his vessel at the Japanese custom-house within the time prescribed by this regulation, shall pay a penalty of ($60) sixty dollars for each day that he shall so neglect to enter his ship.

The Japanese government shall have the right to place custom-house officers on board of any ship in their ports (men-of-war excepted.) All custom-house officers shall be treated with civility, and such reasonable accommodation shall be allotted to them as the ship affords. No goods shall be unladen from any ship between the hours of sunset and sunrise, except by special permission of the custom-house authorities, and the hatches, and all other places of entrance into that part of the ship where the cargo is stowed, may be secured by Japanese officers, between the hours of sunset and sunrise, by affixing seals, locks or other fastenings; and if any person shall, without due permission, open any entrance that has been so secured, or shall break or remove any seal, lock or other fastening that has been affixed by the Japanese custom-house officers, every person so offending shall pay a fine of ($60) sixty dollars for each offence. Any goods that shall be discharged or attempted to be discharged from any ship, without having been duly entered at the Japanese custom-house, as hereinafter provided, shall be liable to seizure and confiscation.

Packages of goods made up with an attempt to defraud the revenue of Japan, by concealing therein articles of value which are not set forth in the invoice, shall be forfeited.

American ships that shall smuggle or attempt to smuggle goods in any of the non-opened harbors of Japan, all such goods shall be forfeited to the Japanese government, and the ship shall pay a fine of ($1,000) one thousand dollars for each offence. Vessels needing repairs may land their cargo for that purpose without the payment of duty. All goods so landed shall remain in charge of the Japanese authorities, and all just charges for storage, labor and supervision shall be paid thereon. But if any portion of such cargo be sold, the regular duties shall be paid on the portion so disposed of. Cargo may be transhipped to another vessel in the same harbor without the payment of duty; but all transhipments shall be made under the supervision of Japanese officers, and after satisfactory proof has been given to the custom-house authorities of the *bona fide* nature of the transaction, and also under a permit to be granted for that purpose by such authorities. The importation of opium being prohibited, if any person or persons shall smuggle, or attempt to smuggle, any opium, he or they shall pay a fine of ($15) fifteen dollars for each catty of opium so smuggled or attempted to be smuggled; and if more than one person shall be engaged in the offence, they shall collectively be held responsible for the payment of the foregoing penalty.

The owner or consignee of any goods, who desires to land them, shall make an entry of the same at the Japanese custom-house. The entry shall be in writing, and shall set forth the name of the person making the entry, and the name of the ship in which the goods were imported, and the marks, numbers, packages and contents thereof, with the value of each package extended separately in one amount, and at the bottom of the entry shall be placed the aggregate value of all the goods contained in the entry. On each entry, the owner or consignee shall certify, in writing, that the entry then presented exhibits the actual cost of the goods, and that nothing has been concealed whereby the customs of Japan would be defrauded; and the owner or consignee shall sign his name to such certificate.

The original invoice or invoices of the goods so entered shall be pre-

sented to the custom-house authorities, and shall remain in their possession until they have examained the goods contained in the entry.

The Japanese officers may examine any or all of the packages so entered, and for this purpose may take them to the custom-house, but such examination shall be without expense to the importer or injury to the goods, and after examination, the Japanese shall restore the goods to their original condition in the packages, (so far as may be practicable,) and such examination shall be made without any unreasonable delay.

If any owner or importer discovers that his goods have been damaged on the voyage of importation before such goods have been delivered to him, he may notify the custom-house authorities of such damage, and he may have the damaged goods appraised by two or more competent and disinterested persons, who, after due examination, shall make a certificate setting forth the amount per cent. of damage on each separate package, describing it by its mark and number, which certificates shall be signed by the appraisers in presence of the custom-house authorities, and the importer may attach the certificate to his entry, and make a corresponding deduction from it. But this shall not prevent the custom-house authorities from appraising the goods in the manner provided in article fourth of the treaty, to which these regulations are appended.

After the duties have been paid, the owner shall receive a permit authorizing the delivery to him of the goods, whether the same are at the custom-house or on ship-board. All goods intended to be exported shall be entered at the Japanese custom-house before they are placed on ship-board. The entry shall be in writing, and shall state the name of the ship by which the goods are to be exported, with the marks and numbers of the packages, and the quantity, description and value of their contents. The exporter shall certify in writing that the entry is a true account of all the goods contained therein, and shall sign his name thereto. Any goods that are put on board of a ship for exportation before they have been entered at the custom-house, and all packages which contain prohibited articles, shall be forfeited to the Japanese government.

No entry at the custom-house shall be required for supplies for the use of ships, their crews and passengers, nor for the clothing, &c., of passengers.

Ships wishing to clear shall give (24) twenty-four hours' notice at the custom-house, and at the end of that time they shall be entitled to their clearance; but if it be refused, the custom-house authorities shall immediately inform the captain or consignee of the ship of the reasons why the clearance is refused, and they shall also give the same notice to the American consul.

Ships of war of the United States shall not be required to enter or clear at the custom-house, nor shall they be visited by Japanese custom-house or police officers. Steamers carrying the mails of the United States may enter and clear on the same day, and they shall not be required to make a manifest, except for such passengers and goods as are to be landed in Japan. But such steamers shall, in all cases, enter and clear at the custom-house.

Whale ships touching for supplies, or ships in distress, shall not be required to make a manifest of their cargo; but if they subsequently wish to trade, they shall then deposit a manifest, as required in regulation first.

The word ship, wherever it occurs in these regulations, or in the treaty to which they are attached, is to be held as meaning ship, bark, brig, schooner, sloop or steamer.

Any person signing a false declaration or certificate, with the intent to defraud the revenue of Japan, shall pay a fine of ($125) one hundred and twenty-five dollars for each offence.

No tonnage duties shall be levied on American ships in the ports of Japan, but the following fees shall be paid to the Japanese custom-house authorities: For the entry of a ship, ($15,) fifteen dollars. For the clearance of a ship, ($7,) seven dollars. For each permit, ($1½,) one dollar and a half. For each bill of health, ($1½,) one dollar and a half. For any other document, ($1½,) one dollar and a half.

Duties shall be paid to the Japanese government on all goods landed in the country according to the following tariff:

Class One.—All articles in this class shall be free of duty. Gold and silver coined or uncoined. Wearing apparel in actual use. Household furniture and printed books not intended for sale, but the property of persons who come to reside in Japan.

Class Two.—A duty of (5) five per cent. shall be paid on the following articles:

All articles used for the purpose of building, rigging, repairing or fitting out of ships. Whaling gear of all kinds. Salted provisions of all kinds. Bread and breadstuffs. Living animals of all kinds. Coals. Timber for building houses. Rice. Paddy. Steam machinery. Zinc. Lead. Tin. Raw silk.

Class Three.—A duty of (35) thirty-five per cent. shall be paid on all intoxicating liquors, whether prepared by distillation, fermentation or in any other manner.

Class Four.—All goods not included in any of the preceding classes shall pay a duty of (20) twenty per cent.

All articles of Japanese production, which are exported as cargo, shall pay a duty of (5) five per cent., with the exception of gold and silver coin and copper in bars. (5) Five years after the opening of Kanagawa the import and export duties shall be subject to revision if the Japanese government desires it.

TOWNSEND HARRIS. [L. S.]

II. CONVENTION WITH PARAGUAY.

BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA:

A PROCLAMATION.

WHEREAS a convention relating to the claims of the "United States and Paraguay Navigation Company," against the Paraguayan government, was concluded between the United States of America and the Republic of Paraguay, and was signed by their respective plenipotentiaries at Asuncion on the fourth day of February, one thousand eight hundred

and fifty-nine, the original of which convention being in the English and Spanish languages, is, word for word, as follows:

Special convention between the United States of America and the Republic of Paraguay, relating to the claims of the "United States and Paraguayan Navigation Company" against the Paraguayan government.

His Excellency the President of the United States of America and his Excellency the President of the Republic of Paraguay, desiring to remove every cause that might interfere with the good understanding and harmony, for a time so unhappily interrupted between the two nations, and now so happily restored, and which it is so much for their interest to maintain; and desiring for this purpose to come to a definite understanding, equally just and honorable to both nations, as to the mode of settling a pending question of the said claims of the "United States and Paraguay Navigation Company"—a company composed of citizens of the United States—against the government of Paraguay, have agreed to refer the same to a special and respectable commission, to be organized and regulated by the convention hereby established between the two high contracting parties; and for this purpose they have appointed and conferred full powers, respectively, to wit:

His Excellency the President of the United States of America upon James B. Bowlin, a Special Commissioner of the said United States of America, specifically charged and empowered for this purpose; and his Excellency the President of the Republic of Paraguay upon Señor Nicolas Vasquez, Secretary of State and Minister of Foreign Affairs of the said Republic of Paraguay, who, after exchanging their full powers, which were found in good and proper form, agreed upon the following articles:

Article I.

The government of the Republic of Paraguay binds itself for the responsibility in favor of the "United States and Paraguay Navigation Company," which may result from the decree of commissioners, who, it is agreed, shall be appointed as follows.

Article II.

The two high contracting parties, appreciating the difficulty of agreement upon the amount of the reclamations to which the said company may be entitled, and being convinced that a commission is the only equitable and honorable method by which the two countries can arrive at a perfect understanding thereof, hereby covenant to adjust them accordingly by a loyal commission. To determine the amount of said reclamations it is therefore agreed to constitute such a commission, whose decision shall be binding, in the following manner:

The government of the United States of America shall appoint one commissioner, and the government of Paraguay shall appoint another; and these two, in case of disagreement, shall appoint a third, said appointment to devolve upon a person of loyalty and impartiality, with the condition that, in case of difference between the commissioners in the choice of an umpire, the diplomatic representatives of Russia and Prussia, accredited to the government of the United States of America, at the city of Washington, may select such umpire.

The two commissioners named in the said manner shall meet in the city of Washington, to investigate, adjust and determine the amount of the claims of the above-mentioned company, upon sufficient proofs of the charges and defences of the contending parties.

ARTICLE III.

The said commissioners, before entering upon their duties, shall take an oath before some judge of the United States of America that they will fairly and impartially investigate the said claims, and a just decision thereupon render, to the best of their judgment and ability.

ARTICLE IV.

The said commissioners shall assemble, within one year after the ratification of the "treaty of friendship, commerce and navigation" this day celebrated at the city of Assumption, between the two high contracting parties, at the city of Washington, in the United States of America, and shall continue in session for a period not exceeding three months, within which, if they come to an agreement, their decision shall be proclaimed; and in case of disagreement, they shall proceed to the appointment of an umpire, as already agreed.

ARTICLE V.

The government of Paraguay hereby binds itself to pay to the government of the United States of America, in the city of Assumption, Paraguay, thirty days after presentation to the government of the republic, the draft which that of the United States of America shall issue for the amount for which the two commissioners concurring, or by the umpire, shall declare it responsible to the said company.

ARTICLE VI.

Each of the high contracting parties shall compensate the commissioner it may appoint the sum of money he may stipulate for his services, either by instalments or at the expiration of his task. In case of the appointment of an umpire, the amount of his remuneration shall be equally borne by both contracting parties.

ARTICLE VII.

The present convention shall be ratified within fifteen months, or earlier if possible, by the government of the United States of America, and by the President of the Republic of Paraguay, within twelve days from this date. The exchange of ratifications shall take place in the city of Washington.

In faith of which, and in virtue of our full powers, we have signed the present convention in English and Spanish, and have hereunto set our respective seals.

Done at Assumption this fourth day of February, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and fifty-nine, being the eighty-third year of the independence of the United States of America, and the forty-seventh of that of Paraguay.

JAMES B. BOWLIN, [SEAL.]
NICOLAS VASQUEZ. [SEAL.]

III. Treaty with Paraguay.

BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA:

A PROCLAMATION.

Whereas a treaty of friendship, commerce and navigation, between the United States of America and the Republic of Paraguay, was concluded and signed by their respective plenipotentiaries, at Asuncion, on the fourth day of February, one thousand eight hundred and fifty-nine, the original of which treaty being in the English and Spanish languages, is, word for word, as follows:

A treaty of friendship, commerce and navigation between the governments of the United States of America and of the Republic of Paraguay, concluded and signed in the city of Assumption, the capital of the Republic of Paraguay, on the fourth day of February, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and fifty-nine, the eighty-third year of the independence of the United States of America, and the forty-seventh of that of the Republic of Paraguay.

In the name of the Most Holy Trinity! The governments of the two republics, the United States of America and of Paraguay, in South America, being mutually disposed to cherish more intimate relations and intercourse than those which have heretofore subsisted between them, and believing it to be of mutual advantage to adjust the conditions of such relations by signing a "treaty of friendship, commerce and navigation," for that object have nominated their respective plenipotentiaries, that is to say: His Excellency the President of the United States of America has nominated James B. Bowlin a Special Commissioner of the United States of America, at Assumption, and His Excellency the President of the Republic of Paraguay has nominated the Paraguayan citizen, Nicolas Vasquez, Secretary of State and Minister of Foreign Relations of the Republic of Paraguay, who, after having communicated competent authorities, have agreed upon and concluded the following articles:

Article I.

There shall be perfect peace and sincere friendship between the government of the United States of America and the government of the Republic of Paraguay, and between the citizens of both States, and without exception of persons or places. The high contracting parties shall use their best endeavors that this friendship and good understanding may be constantly and perpetually maintained.

Article II.

The Republic of Paraguay, in the exercise of the sovereign right which pertains to her, concedes to the merchant flag of the citizens of the United States of America the free navigation of the river Paraguay, as far as the dominions of the Empire of Brazil, and of the right side of the Paraná, throughout all its course belonging to the republic, subject to police and fiscal regulations of the supreme government of the republic, in conformity with its concessions to the commerce of friendly nations. They shall be at liberty, with their ships and cargoes, freely and securely to

come to and to leave all the places and ports which are already mentioned; to remain and reside in any part of the said territories, hire houses and warehouses, and trade in all kinds of produce, manufactures and merchandise of lawful commerce, subject to the usages and established customs of the country. They may discharge the whole or a part of their cargoes at the ports of Pilar, and where commerce with other nations may be permitted, or proceed with the whole or part of their cargo to the port of Assumption, according as the captain, owner or other duly authorized person shall deem expedient.

In the same manner shall be treated and considered such Paraguayan citizens as may arrive at the ports of the United States of America, with cargoes in Paraguayan vessels, or vessels of the United States of America.

ARTICLE III.

The two high contracting parties hereby agree that any favor, privilege or immunity whatever in matters of commerce or navigation, which either contracting party has actually granted, or may hereafter grant to the citizens or subjects of any other State, shall extend, in identity of cases and circumstances, to the citizens of the other contracting party gratuitously, if the concession in favor of that other State shall have been gratuitous, or in return for an equivalent compensation, if the concession shall have been conditional.

ARTICLE IV.

No other or higher duties shall be imposed on the importation or exportation of any article of the growth, produce or manufacture of the two contracting States than are or shall be payable on the like article being the growth, produce or manufacture of any other foreign country. No prohibition shall be imposed upon the importation or exportation of any article of the growth, produce or manufacture of the territories of either of the two contracting parties into the territories of the other, which shall not equally extend to the importation or exportation of similar articles to the territories of any other nation.

ARTICLE V.

No other or higher duties or charges on account of tonnage, light or harbor dues, pilotage, salvage in case of damage or shipwreck, or any other local charges, shall be imposed in any of the ports of the territories of the Republic of Paraguay on vessels of the United States of America than those payable in the same ports by Paraguayan vessels, nor in the ports of the territories of the United States of America on Paraguayan vessels than shall be payable in the same ports by vessels of the United States of America.

ARTICLE VI.

The same duties shall be paid upon the importation and exportation of any article which is or may be legally importable or exportable into the dominions of the United States of America and into those of Paraguay, whether such importation or exportation be made in vessels of the United States of America, or in Paraguayan vessels.

ARTICLE VII.

All vessels which, according to the laws of the United States of America, are to be deemed vessels of the United States of America, and all vessels which, according to the laws of Paraguay, are to be deemed Paraguayan vessels, shall, for the purposes of this treaty, be deemed vessels of the United States of America and Paraguayan vessels respectively.

ARTICLE VIII.

Citizens of the United States of America shall pay, in territories of the Republic of Paraguay, the same import and export duties which are established or may be established hereafter for Paraguayan citizens. In the same manner the latter shall pay, in the United States of America, the duties which are established, or may hereafter be established for citizens of the United States of America.

ARTICLE IX.

All merchants, commanders of ships and others, the citizens of each country respectively, shall have full liberty, in all the territories of the other, to manage their own affairs themselves, or to commit them to the management of whomsoever they please, as agent, broker, factor or interpreter; and they shall not be obliged to employ any other persons than those employed by natives, nor to pay to such persons as they shall think fit to employ any higher salary or remuneration than such as is paid in like cases by natives.

The citizens of the United States of America in the territories of Paraguay, and the citizens of Paraguay in the United States of America, shall enjoy the same full liberty which is now or may hereafter be enjoyed by natives of each country respectively, to buy from and sell to whom they like all articles of lawful commerce, and to fix the prices thereof as they shall see good, without being affected by any monopoly, contract or exclusive privilege of sale or purchase, subject, however, to the general ordinary contributions or imposts established by law.

The citizens of either of the two contracting parties in the territories of the other shall enjoy full and perfect protection for their persons and property, and shall have free and open access to the courts of justice for the prosecution and defence of their just rights; they shall enjoy, in this respect, the same rights and privileges as native citizens, and they shall be at liberty to employ, in all cases, the advocates, attorneys or agents of whatever description, whom they may think proper.

ARTICLE X.

In whatever relates to the police of the ports, the lading or unlading of ships, the warehousing and safety of merchandise, goods and effects, the succession to personal estates, by will or otherwise, and the disposal of personal property of every sort and denomination, by sale, donation, exchange or testament, or in any other manner whatsoever, as also with regard to the administration of justice, the citizens of each contracting party shall enjoy, in the territories of the other, the same privileges, liberties and rights as native citizens, and shall not be charged, in any of these respects, with any other or higher imposts or duties than those

which are or may be paid by native citizens, subject always to the local laws and regulations of such territories.

In the event of any citizen of either of the two contracting parties dying without will or testament in the territory of the other contracting party, the consul-general, consul or vice-consul of the nation to which the deceased may belong, or, in his absence, the representative of such consul-general, consul or vice-consul shall, so far as the laws of each country will permit, take charge of the property which the deceased may have left, for the benefit of his lawful heirs and creditors, until an executor or administrator be named by the said consul-general, consul or vice-consul, or his representative.

ARTICLE XI.

The citizens of the United States of America residing in the territories of the Republic of Paraguay, and the citizens of the Republic of Paraguay, residing in the United States of America, shall be exempted from all compulsory military service whatsoever, whether by sea or land, and from all forced loans or military exactions or requisitions; and they shall not be compelled to pay any charges, requisition or taxes other or higher than those that are or may be paid by native citizens.

ARTICLE XII.

It shall be free for each of the two contracting parties to appoint consuls for the protection of trade, to reside in the territories of the other party; but before any consul shall act as such, he shall, in the usual form, be approved and admitted by the government to which he is sent; and either of the two contracting parties may except from the residence of consuls such particular places as either of them may judge fit to be excepted.

The diplomatic agents and consuls of the United States of America in the territories of the Republic of Paraguay shall enjoy whatever privileges, exemptions and immunities are or may be there granted to the diplomatic agents and consuls of any other nation whatever; and, in like manner, the diplomatic agents and consuls of the Republic of Paraguay in the United States of America shall enjoy whatever privileges, exemptions and immunities are or may be there granted to agents of any other nation whatever.

ARTICLE XIII.

For the better security of commerce between the citizens of the United States of America and the citizens of the Republic of Paraguay, it is agreed that if at any time any interruption of friendly intercourse or any rupture should unfortunately take place between the two contracting parties, the citizens of either of the said contracting parties, who may be established in the territories of the other in the exercise of any trade or special employment, shall have the privilege of remaining and continuing such trade or employment therein without any manner of interruption, in full enjoyment of their liberty and property, as long as they behave peaceably and commit no offence against the laws; and their goods and effects, of whatever description they may be, whether in their own custody or entrusted to individuals or to the State, shall not be liable to seizure or sequestration, or to any other charges or demands than those

which may be made upon the like effects or property belonging to native citizens. If, however, they prefer to leave the country, they shall be allowed the time they may require to liquidate their accounts and dispose of their property, and a safe conduct shall be given them to embark at the ports which they shall themselves select. Consequently, in the case referred to of a rupture, the public funds of the contracting States shall never be confiscated, sequestered or detained.

ARTICLE XIV.

The citizens of either of the two contracting parties residing in the territories of the other shall enjoy, in regard to their houses, persons and properties, the protection of the government in as full and ample a manner as native citizens.

In like manner the citizens of each contracting party shall enjoy, in the territories of the other, full liberty of conscience, and shall not be molested on account of their religious belief; and such of those citizens as may die in the territories of the other party shall be buried in the public cemeteries, or in places appointed for the purpose, with suitable decorum and respect.

The citizens of the United States of America, residing within the territories of the Republic of Paraguay, shall be at liberty to exercise, in private and in their own dwellings, or within the dwellings or offices of consuls or vice-consuls of the United States of America, their religious rites, services and worship, and to assemble therein for that purpose, without hindrance or molestation.

ARTICLE XV.

The present treaty shall be in force during ten years, counted from the day of the exchange of the ratifications; and further, until the end of twelve months after the government of the United States of America, on the one part, or the government of Paraguay on the other, shall have given notice of its intention to terminate the same.

The Paraguayan government shall be at liberty to address to the government of the United States of America, or to its representative in the Republic of Paraguay, the official declaration agreed upon in this article.

ARTICLE XVI.

The present treaty shall be ratified by His Excellency the President of the United States of America within the term of fifteen months, or earlier if possible, and by His Excellency the President of the Republic of Paraguay within twelve days from this date, and the ratifications shall be exchanged in Washington.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed it, and affixed thereto their seals.

Done at Assumption, this fourth day of February, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and fifty-nine.

JAMES B. BOWLIN, [SEAL.]
NICOLAS VASQUEZ. [SEAL.]

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE AND BOARDS OF TRADE.

Monthly Meeting of the Chamber of Commerce, New-York, Wednesday, July 3, 1861.

THE monthly meeting of the Chamber of Commerce, N. Y., was held on Wednesday, (the regular day falling on July 4th,) at one o'clock—P. PERIT, Esq., President, in the chair.

Harbor Defences.—Mr. GEORGE OPDYKE, Chairman of the Committee on the present defences of the harbor of New-York, reported that the Committee, in performing the duty assigned them, visited a portion of the fortifications in person, and, though unable to find leisure to visit the whole, they had such information, from reliable sources, that they believed they had exact knowledge of the present condition of all the forts and their armaments, and had accordingly drawn up the following memorial:

New-York, July 3, 1861.

To the Honorable the Congress of the United States, in Senate and House of Representatives convened:

The Chamber of Commerce of the State of New-York respectfully represent, that the defences of the harbor of New-York require the immediate attention of government. In their present neglected condition they are unworthy of the government, and utterly unreliable as a means of defence. A hostile fleet might pass them with little or no risk of injury, and lay the city in ashes. In proof of this, the following details are respectfully submitted:

Fort Schuyler, the only defensive work that protects the city from approaches by way of the East River, is without armament.

Fort Richmond, Staten Island, the only modern and substantial work that commands the main entrance to the harbor, is also without armament.

Fort Tompkins, situated on the heights back of Fort Richmond, and chiefly intended to protect the latter from land attacks, is unfinished, and the work on it entirely suspended.

The projected fortress at Sandy Hook, the largest and most important of all our harbor defences, is in the earlier stages of its construction, and unless the appropriations for it are increased, many months must elapse before it will be in readiness to receive any portion of its armament.

Fort Hamilton, on the Long Island side of the Narrows, has a few inferior guns mounted, as has also the breastworks opposite on Staten Island.

Fort Lafayette, at the Narrows, has a full armament of inferior guns; but it is an old fort, of little strength.

The fortifications on Bedlow's Island and Governor's Island are well supplied with guns, chiefly of the old style; but the proximity of these forts to the city renders them altogether inadequate as a means of protecting it from the shells and heavy metal of iron-cased steamers.

These constitute the harbor defences of New-York. It will be seen from the foregoing details that, in their present condition, they afford very inadequate protection to the city against the approaches of a hostile fleet. It is generally believed that the civil war in which we are now involved renders our foreign relations so critical, that we are liable at any moment to be precipitated into a foreign war. Under these circumstances, common prudence demands that government should promptly provide for the safety of the commercial emporium of the nation, by making its defences so strong and perfect, that they will be able to repel any possible combination of naval force. Your memorialists believe that, to secure this end, it is only necessary—

First.—To furnish all the existing fortifications with new armament, of the heaviest metal and most approved style, and with proper garrisons.

Second.—To complete, at the earliest possible moment, the fortifications at Sandy Hook, and Fort Tompkins on Staten Island.

Third.—To construct floating batteries of iron, to guard the Swash and minor channels, and to aid the forts in repelling or sinking iron-cased steamers.

It is believed that these means would be ample to resist all the accumulated power that steam iron-clad hulls and rifle cannon have given to ships of war. The manning and re-arming the forts with new guns, of the most approved style, may be done promptly and at little expense; and the defenceless condition of the city demands that it should be done at once. The completion of the two forts in progress, and the construction of the floating batteries, will require time and a liberal expenditure of money; but this your memorialists venture to hope will be given cheerfully.

Hitherto the defences of New-York have been sadly neglected, and yet she has peculiar claims on government to provide liberally for her safety. She is the commercial and financial centre of the nation—the heart, whose pulsations give vitality to its industry and credit—and munificent contributions in men and money, to sustain the government in its hour of greatest peril, gives ample assurances that the means of defence placed at her command will never be used against the government or its friends.

The facts, thus briefly stated, demonstrate the necessity of prompt action in the premises, and at the same time warrant your memorialists in asking, respectfully but earnestly, that your honorable bodies will make early and liberal appropriations for the objects referred to.

Mr. Opdyke presented the following resolution, by order of the committee, which was unanimously passed:

Resolved, That copies of the foregoing memorial, duly attested by the officers of the Chamber, be forwarded to the President of the United States and to both Houses of Congress, and that a committee be appointed to proceed to Washington for the purpose of enforcing its views,

and urging upon the executive and upon Congress the necessity of prompt action.

Mr. OPDYKE continued: While upon this subject I may state to the Chamber that there was placed in the hands of the committee an application from some gentlemen, who are engaged in getting up a local artillery battalion for harbor and coast defences, for material aid. The committee not having any power to give funds for the purpose, yet deeming the object a most worthy one, submit to the Chamber the following:

Resolved, That the local artillery battalion which it is proposed to equip and drill for harbor and coast defences, would prove a most valuable auxiliary to the defences of the city. The Chamber therefore heartily commends its appeals for equipments and other aid to the favorable consideration of the State Military Board and to the liberality of the citizens of New-York.

On motion, the report was adopted.

Mr. PHELPS, before adopting the memorial and resolution, wished an amendment to that portion which stated that "the civil war in which we are now involved renders our foreign relations so critical that we are likely at any moment to be precipitated into foreign war." He did not think there was any such danger of rupture, and did not wish such a statement to issue from the Chamber.

Mr. OPDYKE said that every member of the Chamber could judge of the ill-feeling engendered between the people of this country and the government of Great Britain. It was well known that the ramifications of our commerce, extending over the civilized world, necessarily interfered with the interests and ambitious views of other countries, and rendered us at any moment liable to the calamity of a foreign war. Though not likely to occur, there was a liability to it; and it was to meet just such a contingency that we were seeking to make our harbor defences efficient.

Mr. PHELPS was sorry to hear any suggestion of an unpleasant feeling existing between our government and that of Great Britain. He had heard it stated by Lord LYONS that nothing but the most friendly relations existed; for his own part, he believed that neither the British government nor the people wished us any thing but peace and prosperity.

Mr. BLOODGOOD was in favor of the language of the memorial. Within a few days he had received from Havre a French paper, containing correspondence between the merchants of Havre and the Minister in Paris. The merchants state that they fear the commerce of France may suffer from the state of things in this country, to which the Minister replies that he thanks them for their advice, but the French government means to sustain her rights on this side of the world, and adds, that "*between the two fractions of the once United States* of America, we will take care that the French flag is respected." Mentioning this to a well-known diplomatist, he remarked: "For God's sake, do not make that public." It seemed to have escaped the attention of the New-York editors, who were spending more time in looking for office than for the good of the country.

Mr. HOTALING fully coincided with the language of the report. Whether we had foreign wars or not, our harbor defences should be put in different repair.

The memorial and accompanying resolutions were adopted unani-

mously, and the following gentlemen were named by the president as the committee to present the memorial to Congress:

GEORGE OPDYKE,	ROBERT B. MINTURN,
GEORGE W. BLUNT,	A. A. LOW,
CHARLES H. MARSHALL,	LLOYD ASPINWALL,
DENNING DUER,	AUGUSTUS C. RICHARDS,
EZRA NYE,	JOHN D. JONES.

Portrait of a Pirate.—Mr. GEORGE W. BLUNT moved that the portrait of Captain WILSON, master of the MINNIE SCHIFFER, who acted so bravely in rescuing the lives of a large number of persons, but who had now turned pirate, commanding a privateer from New-Orleans, be taken from the walls of the Chamber.

The Chairman suggested that it could be removed, and probably the subscribers to a service of plate intended for Captain WILSON, but not yet delivered, might, under the circumstances, desire to give it some other destination.

A portrait of the Hon. S. P. CHASE, Secretary of the Treasury, (life size,) was exhibited to the members. The artist offers to sell this portrait and donate the proceeds to the fund for the relief of the New-York volunteers.

The Secretary reported that a copy of the map of Virginia, Maryland and Delaware, published by Messrs. E. & G. W. BLUNT, had been presented by that firm to the Chamber, also a copy of the New-York Shippers and Consignees' Guide, by Messrs. BAKER & GODWIN.

The following new members were elected, after which the Chamber adjourned:

HUGH N. CAMP,	THOMAS RICHARDSON,
SAMUEL COLGATE,	JAMES A. ROOSEVELT,
CHARLES DIMON,	THEODORE ROOSEVELT,
JOHN EADIE,	BARNET L. SOLOMON.
WILLIAM LYELL,	

PROTECTION OF THE HARBOR OF NEW-YORK.

A Local Artillery Battalion Suggested.—The following memorial has been addressed to Governor MORGAN by prominent gentlemen of this city:

To his Excellency EDWIN D. MORGAN, *Governor of the State of New-York:*

The undersigned, merchants and property owners of the city of New-York, respectfully represent, that inasmuch as the present emergencies of the government may, and probably will, require all the available forces of the regular service to be engaged in active operations, and that our harbor and forts may consequently be left with a force insufficient for its protection, it is deemed imperative that *a Local Artillery Battalion*, completely drilled by experienced officers, should be organized and equipped at once; and as the undersigned are informed that competent officers are available for such service, and that one company of experienced men is already formed and capable of performing this service, which would form a nucleus for the organization, we respectfully request that such a battalion may be organized at once.

In the report of the Military Commission to Europe it is well stated that "our regular army never can, and perhaps never ought to be large enough to provide for all the contingencies that may arise, but it should be as large as its ordinary avocations in the defence of the frontier will justify; and the greatest possible care should be bestowed upon the instruction in the special arms of the artillery and engineer troops.

"The militia and volunteer system should be placed upon some tangible and effective basis; instructions furnished them from the regular army, and all possible means taken to spread sound military information among them. In the vicinity of our sea-coast fortifications, it would be well to provide a sufficient number of volunteer companies, with the means of instruction in heavy artillery; detailing officers of the regular artillery as instructors. In the time of war, or when war is imminent, local companies of regular artillery might easily be enlisted for short terms of service, or for the war, in sea-coast towns. The same thing might advantageously be carried into effect on a small scale in time of peace."—*McClellan's Report.*

These remarks, which are the deductions of scientific and military men, need no argument from us to corroborate their worth, and are to us a convincing proof of the necessities of the organization referred to.

All of which we respectfully submit for your Excellency's consideration.

Brown, Brothers & Co.,	N. L. Griswold,
Goodhue & Co.,	A. A. Low & Brother,
Howland & Aspinwall,	C. H. Marshall,
Grinnell, Minturn & Co.,	P. Perit,
Moses Taylor & Co.,	Richard Lathers,

Wm. Whitlock, Jr.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

New Silver Alloy—Statistics of Lowell—Michigan Copper Mines—French Wines—Flax Cotton—New Mineral Discoveries in California.

NEW SILVER ALLOY.

A beautiful new alloy is stated by foreign contemporaries to have been invented recently, after many experiments, by Messrs. De Ruolz and De Fontenay, France. It is said to be well adapted for small coins and industrial purposes. It consists of one-third silver united with 25 to 30 per cent. of nickel, and from 37 to 42 of copper. Phosphorus is used as a flux in making the metals combine, but when first made and cooled it is very brittle. To render it ductile, the phosphorus must all be removed by reheating, after which the alloy resembles a simple metal, and presents in a very high degree the qualities to which the precious metals owe their superiority. It resembles platinum and silver of $\frac{9}{10}\frac{9}{0}\frac{9}{0}$ in color; it takes a very brilliant polish. Its tenacity and hardness are extreme. It is ductile, malleable and very difficult of fusion; very sonorous, unalterable in the air, and attacked only by the most energetic re-agents. It has no odor, and its specific gravity is but little inferior to that of silver. It is

easy to estimate the important part such an alloy is calculated to play in the industrial arts, and especially in the silversmith's art—in, to a great extent, replacing silver, of which its price is 40 per cent. less, and as its hardness gives it a marked superiority. Again, articles which are merely silvered or gilt have, it is true, a great advantage in their low price; but they quickly deteriorate, and can be re-silvered or regilt only a very few times, after which they must be replaced by new ones, and, in the long run, entail such an outlay as to confirm the old adage, that "the cheapest is the dearest in the end."

STATISTICS OF LOWELL MANUFACTURES.

Capital stock,		$ 13,900,000
Number of mills,	No.,	54
Spindles,	"	403,696
Looms,	"	12,190
Females employed,	"	8,405
Males employed,	"	3,979
Yards made per week,	yds.,	2,481,000 cotton.
	"	82,000 woollen.
	"	25,000 carpets.
Cotton consumed per week, pounds,	lbs.,	823,000
Clean wool consumed per week, pounds,	"	75,000
Yards, dyed and printed,	yds.,	15,586,000
Tons anthracite coal, per annum,	tons,	30,400
Charcoal, bushels, per annum,	bush.,	26,850
Wood, per annum, cords,	cords,	1,720
Oil, per annum, gallons,	galls.,	55,682 oil.
	"	20,000 lard.
Starch, pounds, per annum,	lbs.,	1,631,000
Flour, barrels, per annum,	bbls.,	1,485

PRODUCTS OF THE MICHIGAN COPPER MINES.

The following is an approximate estimate of the product of native copper from the opening of the Lake Superior mines, in 1845 to 1860, inclusively, in tons of 2,000 lbs.:

PRODUCE FROM 1845 TO 1857, INCLUSIVELY.

		Rough.		*Refined.*
		24,475	....	18,945
Shipped in 1858, ...	5,896 tons.	....	....	....
Less, included in above item,	888 "	....	....	....
	....	5,008	....	3,500
Shipped in 1859, ...		6,058	....	4,200
" 1860, ...		8,614	....	6,000
		44,155	....	32,654

The principal copper mines of Cornwall and Devon are comprised within a zone of a mile and a half in width, and thirty-three miles in length. The product of that district in 1860 was 13,212 tons, 1,507 tons less than in 1856. This result has been obtained after workings of 250 years.

The Lake Superior metalliferous belt extends within the limits of Michigan alone, as measured on the range, 160 miles, and averaging five miles in breadth.

The present and perhaps prospective low price of copper will prove no serious detriment to the mining interests. On the contrary, the lessening of the cost of production will be hastened. The success of some of the leading mines has led to some extravagance of management. The isolation of the country has rendered it difficult to get a resident mining population. The peculiarity of the deposits of mineral wealth, and the want of economical machinery for reducing the stamp work to marketable shape, have been especial hindrances to the accumulation of profits. In some instances there has been an unwise holding back of capital, the shareholders preferring, even after a certainty of success, to defer dividends, by making the product of the mine furnish its own resources. But, in the mean time, there has been developed an energy not less indomitable than has been exhibited in the final successful establishment of many other industrial enterprises. The difficulties of navigation have disappeared since the opening of the St. Mary's ship canal, and of the entry into Portage Lake. The problems of machinery and labor are being rapidly solved. The comforts of a refined civilization are increasing with the extraordinary growth of population, so that with a prospect of 7,500 to 8,000 tons of ingot copper for 1861, even at an average price less than that of 1860, there is much encouragement in the future.—*L. S. Miner.*

FRENCH WINES.

The *Aigle de Toulouse* publishes a decree from the Minister of Finance, extending to all France the permission to mix alcohol with wines intended for exportation. Hitherto only certain departments possessed the privilege, which has been frequently solicited by the Chamber of Commerce of Toulouse and the wine-growers of the Haute Garonne. The decree provides that the addition of the alcohol must always be made in the presence of government officers, who are to take note of the natural strength of the wines and of the quantity of alcohol added.

FLAX COTTON.

The Fibrilia Felting Company, organized under the general laws, have issued their legal notices, from which we condense the following: This corporation is formed to carry on the business of manufacturing flax, hemp, jute, China grass, silk, wool, cotton and like fibrous substances in the various forms of manufacture necessary for yarns, cloth and felt, as well as the bleaching and coloring the same. The capital stock is $10,000, which has been paid in, and has been expended in the purchase of machinery, patent rights, &c., for carrying on the business. The par value of each share is $100, and the business is carried on in Winchester, Middlesex county. Stephen M. Allen is President, Geo. L. Fall is Treasurer; and they, with S. P. White, are the Directors.

NEW MINERAL DISCOVERIES IN CALIFORNIA.

A recent number of the San Francisco *Alta California* furnishes accounts of new and extraordinary rich veins of gold and silver ore that have lately been brought to light in the eastern slope of the Sierra Ne-

vada range. Mines that bid fair to equal, if not surpass, any thing known in the history of California, are now being opened up in Mariposa and Tulare counties, in the southeastern section of the State. In the Coso district, in the eastern portion of Tulare county, the gold and silver ores have assayed at the rate of $1,500 to $6,000 per ton, from pieces chipped off from the weather-worn outcroppings with sledge-hammers, crowbars, &c. But as if this were not enough to excite the cupidity of lucre-loving humanity, a startling discovery of gold and silver bearing antimonial ore has recently been made, specimens of which have been assayed at San Francisco, and yield the astonishing amount of more than *sixteen thousand dollars to the ton!* This extraordinary "lead" is in the hands of parties who, naturally enough, do not court publicity in regard to the locality of their splendid prize. Besides these dazzling discoveries, the Mono Lake district, which is located at the junction of Calaveras, Mariposa and Fresno counties, is known to be a prolific field for mining operations, both in silver and gold: while it has been demonstrated that the vast mountains of quartz which comprise the great portion of Mariposa county, known for their prolific gold yield, are even richer in silver. A richer vein of silver has been traced across the northeastern section of Mariposa county, on both sides of the mountain range, which leads to the belief that it is the initiative of a vast bed of silver ore on the west side of the Sierra. In Calaveras county numerous discoveries of extraordinary richness have been made, and it is further stated that discoveries have been made as far east as the Mohave and Colorado rivers, which promise to be of vast importance.

The silver lead in Mariposa county has a somewhat romantic history, as told by the *Alta:* "This silver lead, it is stated, was discovered in 1856, but the discoverer was unaware of its nature until last winter. In his wanderings about Mariposa, where he mined, he at different times prospected, carefully marking the rock he returned with. In 1856, while hunting, he discovered what he thought to be a lead mine. He pocketed the prospect, but thought it of no value in comparison with gold. In 1858 he went east to visit his relatives, taking with him his collection of minerals and gold specimens. Last Februrary he saw a specimen of Washoe ore at W. T. Coleman & Co.'s, in Wall-street, and remarking the resemblance to his lead specimen, procured a piece to compare with his own. He was so well satisfied that they were identical in nature that he had each assayed, and his 'lead specimen' proved to be rich silver ore. Keeping his own counsel he returned to California last spring, and has spent the intervening time in retracing his footsteps over the chemical and chaparral hills of Mariposa, and his investigations have resulted in his discovery as above named."

Mining and scientific parties are now engaged in exploring these new mineral regions, and the stream of adventurers is already setting eastward, across the Sierras, from the southern country, and next spring and summer that whole region will be filled up with eager treasure-hunters.

From these new discoveries California derives additional resources and importance. Fresh streams of emigration will pour into the State, and new and increased impetus will be imparted to its industrial and commercial activity, while the commerce of the world will be stimulated by the increased production of the precious metals.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE

OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

LONDON, *July 1st*, 1861.

To the Editors of the Merchants' Magazine:

I CANNOT, I think, do better than proceed at once to put your readers in possession of an opinion advanced to me the other day by a leading public man, who has been out and in Downing-street for nearly half a century.

He says that, *in any eventuality*, England will not go to war with the Federal government, as war is not desired by any class of politicians nor by the mass of the English people; secondly, because no present necessity exists for it on the plea of cotton; and, in the third place, should the war not be ended before the present English stock of cotton fails, it is not improbable that the Federal government, while vigorously carrying on the war with the Confederate States, would permit cotton to be exported from New-Orleans, rather than to provoke war with a foreign power. Such is the view of the American question as taken by one of the foremost men in England; and when submitted to your readers it will be as fresh and assuring as if submitted to them to-day.

From all that I can see and hear and read, there is but the one conclusion to which I am forced, namely, that the present British government have no American policy whatever, and that the conservative opposition are in precisely the same state. The conservatives will do nothing and say nothing to involve the whigs in war, and were the whigs unhappily to become involved in war, the conservatives would condemn their policy, and do their best to carry an adverse vote against the government. Were the government to be upset on any question, between now and the end of the session, and the conservatives to take office and go to war with the Federal government, I firmly believe that the first act of Lord PALMERSTON'S party opposition would be to condemn the war policy of Lord DERBY, and try to regain office on the strength of such opposition. Whig and Tory are conscientiously opposed to engaging in the present struggle; and, notwithstanding speeches in Parliament and articles in newspapers, you may feel perfectly easy as to the attitude this country will assume, or the course which its statesmen of any party may choose to take. If you can see your way by and by to a regulated cotton trade, through the Upper Mississippi and the New-York railways, if not from New-Orleans, JOHN BULL will be the close and faithful ally of the North, during at least the whole of Mr. LINCOLN'S presidential term.

Passing from this unusual but highly important topic, the next important subject is the harvest prospects of the United Kingdom. These were never more satisfactory, and the probability is that a larger quantity

will this year be harvested than was ever known in this country. Last fall, as your readers will remember, was the only good part of the English season; and winter wheat was put into the ground under the best auspices. An unusually severe winter followed, not severe enough to kill the young shoots, but sufficiently so to make them more healthy than was ever known. A genial spring, neither too wet nor too dry, and a warm summer, has since brought them into ear; and a few weeks more of such weather is only wanted to provide abundantly, almost from the home supply alone, enough for man and beast. High prices are not therefore to be looked for here by your New-York receivers or by the Buffalo or Chicago commission houses. With good weather a very low level of prices will be established, and very likely it will be maintained throughout the year. The time was when good spring wheat flour brought no more than $4 or $4 50 in Liverpool, and you may now expect that such times are again at hand.

Shipping matters, in which I am glad to find you take great interest, now politically do not engage attention. Since Mr. LINDSAY'S return from the United States he has never said in Parliament a word on the subject; and no question has ever been addressed to him or to Mr. MILNER GIBSON as to the mission in which he ambitiously engaged. The fact is, the House of Commons is thoroughly disgusted with the so-called shipping question, it having been kept before the public by a clique of old-fashioned gentlemen, whose opinions on commercial classes generally are obnoxious to the masses. Any little popularity which Mr. LINDSAY has, which, by the way, is not much, has been gained by popular appeals against this clique; and, very oddly as it may appear to you, while Mr. LINDSAY was making his American tour and enlightening the members of the New-York Chamber of Commerce among the rest, an individual formerly attached to the staff of the *Morning Chronicle* sent around circulars to all the members of the House of Commons and the House of Lords, claiming to have written all the speeches which, during the past years, have been delivered by Mr. LINDSAY, and claiming still further to be the author of all MR. LINDSAY'S published works. Whether this painful revelation has kept Mr. LINDSAY from taking a prominent part in the business of the session and shut him up on the subject of his American mission, I cannot say, but it is a fact, that up to this time his mission has not once been named in Parliament. With the vexed question of shipping grievances nothing whatever has yet been done, and the proposition to abolish passing tolls, at once embodied in the Harbors Bill, introduced by Mr. MILNER GIBSON, is not likely to be favorably entertained by the House of Lords, even if it should pass the third reading in the House of Commons. Among those ship-owners who speak out at all, it is said, *why advance another step in the way of the freedom of shipping until the United States and France and other countries make equivalent concessions to those granted to the flags of all nations in the British foreign and coasting and colonial trades?* This sentiment also finds expression to some extent in Parliament, and if not sufficiently strong in the lower house to reject Mr. MILNER GIBSON'S bill, it is, as I have just said, all but sure to be found strong enough in that house, in which free trade is still distrusted.

In dealing with financial matters I cannot, perhaps, do better than give you a *resumé* of the weekly features of the month. During the

week ending 1st June, the discount market was moderately easy, the rates in Lombard-street ranging from 5½ to 5¾ per cent. for choice bills, or ¼ to ½ below the bank minimum. The following were the rates current in the principal continental cities:

	Bank rate.	*Open market.*		*Bank rate.*	*Open market.*
Paris,.....	5 per cent. ..	4½ per cent.	Frankfort,..	3 per cent. ..	2 per cent.
Vienna, ...	5 " ..	6 "	Brussels,...	3 " ..	3 "
Berlin.....	4 " ..	3½ "	Turin,.....	6 " ..	5½ "
Amsterdam,	3 " ..	3 "	Hamburgh,.	none. ..	2½ "

The monthly Board of Trade returns for April were published in the course of the week, and the official statements of the exports and imports to and from the United States for the first quarter were as follow:

	Exports.		*Imports.*
1859,.....	£6,202,943	....	£6,901,609
1860,.....	5,822,109	....	11,084,113
1861,.....	4,026,679	....	13,834,051

The minimum rate of the Bank of England was 6 per cent.; the rate allowed for deposits by the London joint-stock banks, 4½ per cent.; the rate allowed by the London discount establishments, 4½ per cent. for money on call, and 5 per cent. at seven days' notice; Consols, 91⅞ to 92; French 3 per cent. rentes, 69.40; Bank of France rate of discount, 5 per cent.

For the week ending 8th June the money market was more stringent. At the Bank of England business was done to a considerable extent at the minimum rate of 6 per cent., and in the open market the same rate was charged for good 60 day bills. Consols and French rentes declined slightly in the week, the closing prices for the former, ex-dividend, being 89¾ to 89⅞ and 89; the latter, 67.70 for money and the same for the account. The rates allowed for deposits by the London joint-stock banks was 4½ per cent.; by the London discount establishments, 4½ per cent. at call, and five per cent. at seven days' notice. The Bank of France rate of discount, 5 per cent.

For the week ending 15th of June there was no perceptible change in either the London or Paris money markets. The monthly return of the Bank of France give the following changes:

Coin and bullion, increase, £800,000; bills discounted, decrease, £20,000; notes in circulation, decrease, £1,240,000; private deposits, increase, £1,240,000; treasury deposits, increase, £160,000; advances on public securities, decrease, £220,000.

Three per cent. rentes gained ¼ per cent. in the week, and closed at 67.90 for money and 67.95 for the account. Consols also gained and closed at 90 to 90⅛ for money, ex-dividend, and 90⅜ to 90½ for the account, ex-dividend. The demand for money at the Bank of England was moderate. In Lombard-street the minimum bank rate of 6 per cent. was charged for the best bills; in the open market the same rate was charged. The London joint-stock banks continue to allow 4½ per cent. for deposits; the London discount establishments, 4½ per cent. at call, and 5 per cent. at seven days' notice. The Bank of France rate of discount remained at 5 per cent.

For the week ending 22d June three per cents on the Paris Bourse

declined from ⅛ to ¼ per cent.; Consols were also lower, the quotations of the latter being 89⅝ to 89¾ for money, ex-dividend, and 90 to 90⅛ for the account, ex-dividend. The minimum rates of the Bank of England and the Bank of France were unchanged, the former standing at 6 per cent. and the latter at 5 per cent. In the open London market good sixty day bills, 5¾ to 6 per cent. The London joint-stock bank rates unchanged for deposits.

For the week ending 29th June the rate of discount in the open market at Paris was 4¼ per cent.; at Vienna, 6; Hamburgh, 2¾; Brussels, 4; Berlin, 3½; Frankfort, 2; Turin, 6¾, and Amsterdam, 3 per cent. In Paris the Bank of France rate remained at 5 per cent., and in London, the Bank of England rate at 6 per cent. In the open London market 6 per cent. was charged, and the rates on deposits continued as before.

Attention was directed to the sound state of English railways, which is apparent at a glance of the following table:

In 1851 Caledonians were at	20,—now at	97¼
In 1848 Great Northerns were at	40	"	107¼
In 1851 Lancashires were at	46	"	111¼
In 1850 Midlands were at	31	"	121
In 1850 North British were at	16	"	63
In 1854 Berwicks were at	61	"	104¼
In 1850 Scottish Centrals were at	40	"	114¼

The Board of Trade returns for May, and for the five months of the year, have been published, and the exports are as follow:

Year.	*For the month.*		*For the five months.*
1859,	£ 10,485,744	....	£ 52,337,268
1860,	10,949,188	....	52,783,535
1861,	11,206,070	....	49,780,532

The other side of the account the imports foots up a large balance against the United Kingdom:

Year.	*For the month.*		*For the five months.*
1859	£ 10,109,092	....	£ 33,407,156
1860,	13,679,301	....	42,410,364
1861,	17,509,940	....	51,821,567

The failures for the month have been numerous. Among the number, Messrs. James Duncan & Co., of Dundee, who attribute their failure to the stoppage of the American trade; Messrs. T. Fish & Co., manufacturers, Manchester; Messrs. B. Wild & Co., Manchester, in the American trade; Messrs. Churchill & Macmellan, timber brokers, Cannon-street, London; Messrs. D. & J. Thomson & Co., jute spinners and manufacturers, Dundee; Messrs. F. Atkin & Co., merchants, Manchester.

Trade in the manufacturing districts continues quiet and contracted. So far there is nothing like pressure yet experienced, but the present stock of cotton on hand will not carry the cotton spinners into the next year at the present rate of working up.

Some particulars with regard to the movement of cotton in Liverpool during the last two months will no doubt be acceptable to your readers. At the commencement of April the stock amounted to 942,000 bales, being 36,000 bales more than the quantity held at the corresponding date in 1860; but during the last two months it will be seen that this

excess has been more than lost. Last year's deliveries, however, were on a very free scale, the crop of the preceding season having been remarkably abundant:

Stock.	1861. bales.	1860. bales.	Stock.	1861. bales.	1860. bales.
April 26,.....	952,740	1,027,290	May 31,.....	1,151,010	1,295,570
May 3,.....	900,690	1,016,630	June 7,.....	1,148,650	1,358,620
May 10,.....	976,810	1,027,130	June 14,.....	1,131,080	1,335,040
May 17,.....	1,049,590	1,111,260	June 21,.....	1,116,860	1,307,835
May 24,.....	1,111,510	1,200,730			

The proportions in which the stocks were made up, at the first and last dates mentioned, were as follow:

	Stock, April 26. bales.	*Stock, June 21.* bales.		*Stock, April 26.* bales.	*Stock, June 21.* bales.
America,.....	776,260	843,930	Egyptian,.....	42,970	48,240
Pernambuco,.....	8,569	8,430	Common West India,	2,540	1,630
Bahia,.....	70	3,540	Surat,.....	115,620	193,030
Maranham,.....	6,790	8,070			

It will be observed, that, notwithstanding the prospect of diminished American supplies, the stock of Surat is accumulating; in fact, it is only kept down by reshipments to Russia, Germany and Sweden.

London, on Saturday evening, the 22d June, was visited by one of the most terrific conflagrations that probably had occurred since the great fire in 1666; certainly, for the amount of property destroyed, nothing like it has been experienced the last half-century, the loss being estimated at three millions or more.

This catastrophe occurred on the waterside portion of Tooley-street, nearest London Bridge. The outbreak took place at the extensive range of premises known as Cotton's Wharf, and bounded by warehouses belonging to Messrs. Scovell. They had an extensive river frontage, and the whole space on the land side, extending to Tooley-street, was covered with eight or nine massive brick warehouses, six stories in height, the whole occupying an immense area. These buildings were filled with merchandise of every description. There were some thousands of chests of tea and silk stored in the upper floors, while in the lower ones there was an immense stock of Russian tallow, various oils, bales of cotton, hops and grain. Every portion of the entire establishment might be said to have been loaded with goods; and of the whole of this very valuable property, said to be valued at upwards of a million, not a vestige remains but the bare walls and an immense chasm of fire, which, at dusk on Sunday evening, lighted up the Pool and the east end of the city.

From London Bridge there is now very little to be seen beyond heaps of blackened wreck and skeleton walls. The vaults and mounds of ruin over the whole surface of the wide area of destruction are fast cooling down. A fresh outbreak, which took place in a vault on Hay's Wharf, was speedily got under. A quantity of hides has been recovered from among the wreck on Hay's Wharf, and on Chamberlain's Wharf great progress was made towards the recovery of 150 tons of spelter, which has received little or no injury.

The destruction of property and goods proves to be more enormous

than was previously calculated upon; and, by practical men of business, and also by competent judges, the loss is not put down under £4,000,000 sterling. This serious amount will fall principally on four of the London insurance companies. The insurance companies, it is understood, are about to raise the rates of insurance on fire policies, and have already done so in some instances, by 50 per cent.

Great efforts are making to enlarge the steam commerce between England and America. On the afternoon of the 25th June, the steamship SCOTIA, the second iron paddle-wheel liner built by the orders of Messrs. BURNS for the CUNARD or British and North American Royal Mail Steam Packet Company, was launched from the building-yard of Messrs. ROBERT NAPIER & SONS, at Govan, near Glasgow. The weather was rather unfavorable, yet an immense concourse of spectators assembled to witness the event. The SCOTIA, which is somewhat larger than the PERSIA, is the second vessel in point of magnitude and capacity that has hitherto been constructed for mercantile service. From the adaptation by the builders of every improvement and scientific auxiliary, the SCOTIA is expected to attain a very high degree of speed, and no doubt is felt that she will, in ordinary circumstances, perform the voyage between New-York and Liverpool in nine days.

Excepting the GREAT EASTERN, the SCOTIA is the largest mercantile steamship afloat in the world, far exceeding in length, strength, tonnage and steam-power the other vessels of the line, and exceeding by 760 tons the tonnage of the PERSIA, and by 1,900 tons the internal capacity of any other of the present splendid CUNARD liners. Her chief proportions may be summed up as follows:

Length of keel and forerake,	360 feet.
Length over all,	400 "
Breadth of mould,	47 "
Depth,	32 "

The report of the joint committee of the Board of Trade to inquire into the best form of covering for submarine telegraph cables has just been issued. Up to the present time 11,364 miles have been laid, but only about 3,000 are actually working. The lines not working include the Atlantic, 2,200 miles, the Red Sea and India, 3,499 miles, the Sardinia, Malta and Corfu, 700 miles, and the Singapore and Batavia, 550 miles. The committee give a succinct history of these, as well as of all the others, and state their conclusions. The failure of the Atlantic is attributed to "the cable having been faulty, owing to the absence of experimental data, to the manufacture having been conducted without proper supervision, and to the cable not having been handled after manufacture with sufficient care;" and they add that "practical men ought to have known that the cable was defective, and to have been aware of the locality of the defects before it was laid." The committee recommend the construction of a vessel specially for the purpose, which they believe, when not employed in laying cables, would be found extremely useful for the ordinary purposes of commerce. In conclusion, they repeat their belief that the exercise of due care might have prevented all the unsatisfactory results that have thus far attended this branch of enterprise.

The Social Science Association.—The following appointments of president of the association and presidents of sections for the Dublin meeting

have been made by the London council: Lord BROUGHAM will be president of the association, and will deliver the inaugural address. The presidents of sections will be—Jurisprudence, Right Hon. JOSEPH NAPIER; Education, Sir JOHN S. LEFEVRE, K. C. B.; Punishment and Reformatories, the Right Hon. the Attorney-General; Public Health, the Right Hon. Lord TALBOT DE MALAHIDE; Trade and International Law, M. MICHEL CHEVALIER, the celebrated French economist. The time of the meeting has been fixed to be from the 14th to the 21st of August.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

MEETING OF CONGRESS—FISCAL YEAR ENDED—FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW-YORK, JUNE, 1861—SAME, YEARS 1857-1861—HEAVY EXPORTS OF PRODUCE TO EUROPE—FOREIGN TRADE OF NEW-YORK, 1851-1861—EXPORT OF GRAIN, 1861—ESTIMATES OF REVENUE BY THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY—IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS AT NEW-YORK—FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC EXCHANGES—RAILROAD DIVIDENDS.

CONGRESS met on the fourth day of July. The message of the President was communicated on the following day. The report of the Secretary of the Treasury recommends numerous changes in the tariff.

The fiscal year of the federal government closed on the 30th of June, and the result is a larger business than was ever before transacted in one year. For four years the aggregates have been as follows:

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Exports,.....	$ 100,667,890	$ 106,443,541	$ 138,036,550	$ 150,386,522
Imports,.....	171,473,336	220,247,307	233,718,718	224,401,260
Total,.....	$ 272,141,226	$ 326,690,848	$ 371,755,268	$ 374,787,782
Duties,.....	27,435,000	34,910,000	37,662,000	28,223,137

The month of June shows a very moderate amount in foreign goods imported; being only $7,262,580, against a monthly average of about sixteen millions for the whole fiscal year ending June 30, 1861; and against $19,122,517 for the month of June, 1860, and $23,583,929 for June, 1859.

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW-YORK FOR THE MONTH OF JUNE, 1861.

ENTERED.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
For consumption, ...	$ 6,652,563	$ 14,909,315	$ 11,870,400	$ 1,825,563
For warehousing,....	2,408,733	5,494,253	2,765,008	3,245,504
Free goods,.....	953,014	3,180,361	4,487,109	2,191,513
Specie and bullion,..	102,132	485,891	38,272	5,387,153
	$ 10,116,442	$ 24,069,821	$ 19,160,789	$ 12,649,733

For the past six months the contrast is also remarkable, presenting features not before existing, except in the revulsion of 1857-8; the aggregate imports (exclusive of specie) for the half year being only $77,949,208, against $117,031,239 for the corresponding period of 1860; and $128,038,931 in 1859; $60,006,271 in 1858, and $115,577,415 in

the inflated year of 1857. These contrasts are more fully represented in the following table:

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW-YORK FOR SIX MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

ENTERED.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
For consumption,..	$36,320,520 ..	$91,829,562 ..	$79,945,689 ..	$31,991,257
For warehousing, .	12,236,253 ..	19,266,384 ..	20,914,902 ..	28,672,040
Free goods,.....	11,449,498 ..	16,942,984 ..	16,170,648 ..	17,285,911
Specie and bullion,	1,778,363 ..	1,125,943 ..	686,837 ..	25,909,668
Total entered,..	$61,784,634 ..	$129,164,874 ..	$117,718,076 ..	$103,858,876
Withdrawn,....	21,911,964 ..	11,515,721 ..	10,315,657 ..	19,374,096

From the above it will be seen that only $51,165,353 of dutiable goods have been thrown upon the market here since January 1st, against $94,261,346 for the same period of last year, and $103,345,284 for the same period of 1859; and the ratio is rapidly diminishing, month by month. We have compiled our usual statement, showing the imports at this port during the last fiscal year, as compared with the three previous years, showing the gross imports of goods and merchandise to have been only one hundred and ninety millions in value, or forty millions less than the year 1859–1860:

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW-YORK FOR FOUR FISCAL YEARS, ENDING JUNE 30.

ENTERED.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
For consumption,..	$94,019,659 ..	$158,451,780 ..	$164,881,435 ..	$106,706,066
For warehousing, .	44,463,806 ..	32,665,650 ..	38,523,572 ..	54,498,323
Free goods,.....	23,665,487 ..	27,518,177 ..	27,936,396 ..	29,121,710
Specie and bullion,	9,324,384 ..	1,611,700 ..	2,377,315 ..	34,075,161
Total entered,..	$171,473,336 ..	$220,247,307 ..	$233,718,718 ..	$224,401,260
Withdrawn,....	49,376,593 ..	27,103,299 ..	29,657,025 ..	36,162,363

If we separate the aggregate dry goods imports from the general merchandise, we find that the decrease in the importations is in dry goods and in general merchandise:

DESCRIPTION OF IMPORTS FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Dry goods,.....	$67,317,736 ..	$93,549,083 ..	$107,843,205 ..	$83,310,345
Gen'l merchandise,	94,831,216 ..	125,086,524 ..	123,498,198 ..	107,015,754
Specie and bullion,	9,324,384 ..	1,611,700 ..	2,377,315 ..	34,075,161
Total imports,..	$171,473,336 ..	$220,247,307 ..	$233,718,718 ..	$224,401,360

The exports of produce and merchandise at this port during the month of June were nearly twelve millions, a larger amount than was ever before shipped from New-York to foreign ports in a single month. During the corresponding month of last year the exports were also unusually large, both in produce and specie; but, compared with any other previous year, the gain is enormous, and it exceeds that of June in the last year, exclusive of specie, by nearly two millions:

FOREIGN EXPORTS FROM NEW-YORK FOR THE MONTH OF JUNE, 1858–1861.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Domestic produce,.....	$6,382,939 ..	$4,880,395 ..	$8,307,774 ..	$10,270,430
Foreign merch., (free,)..	158,769 ..	126,255 ..	200,464 ..	648,482
For'gn merch., (dutiable,)	350,990 ..	187,522 ..	486,228 ..	903,877
Specie and bullion,.....	594,174 ..	7,496,981 ..	8,842,080 ..	244,242
Total exports,.....	$7,486,872 ..	$12,691,153 ..	$17,836,546 ..	$12,067,031
Total, exclusive specie,	6,882,689 ..	5,194,172 ..	8,994,466 ..	11,822,789

The total exports from New-York to foreign ports, exclusive of specie, since January 1st, are larger than for the first six months of any previous year. On the other hand, the exports of specie are less than for the same period for many years:

EXPORTS FROM NEW-YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR SIX MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Domestic produce,.....	$28,580,392 ..	$28,435,582 ..	$38,775,862 ..	$61,477,439
Foreign merch., (free,)...	782,561 ..	1,384,318 ..	1,719,475 ..	1,685,329
For'gn merch., (dutiable,)	2,280,425 ..	1,789,363 ..	3,092,509 ..	3,438,463
Specie and bullion,.....	12,359,959 ..	33,197,972 ..	21,579,752 ..	3,249,438
Total exports,.....	$44,003,337 ..	$64,807,235 ..	$65,147,598 ..	$69,850,669
Total, exclusive specie,	31,643,378 ..	31,609,263 ..	43,567,846 ..	66,601,231

It will be seen that the total, exclusive of specie, even compared with the very large figures for the corresponding period of last year, shows an increase of over fifty per cent., and, as compared with the previous year, the gain is over one hundred per cent. We now produce our comparative tables for the whole year, from which it will be seen that the largest previous exports of produce and merchandise were for the year ending June 30th, 1857, when the total was about eighty-two millions; it will be seen, therefore, that the total for the twelve months just ended was forty-five millions larger than for any former year in the history of the trade. In consequence of the disturbed condition of the South and West, a large amount of produce will be diverted from other channels to this port, but the natural outgoes to foreign ports can hardly be as large during the next twelve months as they have been in the year just closed. Even if the same quantity were to be shipped, the total value must be greatly diminished by the falling off in price. The business of the coming year depends largely upon the results of the English harvest.

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW-YORK FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30.

Entered for Consumption.

MANUFACTURES OF	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,.....	$17,035,032 ..	$28,275,434 ..	$31,437,083 ..	$21,311,212
Cotton,.....	9,012,911 ..	19,003,825 ..	18,339,131 ..	7,613,005
Silk,.....	17,581,099 ..	26,740,909 ..	33,683,706 ..	22,080,682
Flax,.....	3,701,555 ..	8,583,246 ..	8,548,281 ..	3,944,214
Miscellaneous,.....	3,761,788 ..	4,890,755 ..	5,469,601 ..	4,806,586
Total,.....	$51,092,385 ..	$87,494,169 ..	$97,477,801 ..	$59,755,699

Withdrawn from Warehouse.

MANUFACTURES OF	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,.....	$6,369,118 ..	$3,245,046 ..	$3,388,431 ..	$5,589,542
Cotton,.....	4,018,693 ..	1,750,716 ..	2,466,919 ..	3,968,671
Silk,.....	5,394,970 ..	1,308,739 ..	1,396,011 ..	3,841,430
Flax,.....	2,215,427 ..	1,292,722 ..	911,214 ..	1,581,324
Miscellaneous,.....	1,385,173 ..	789,773 ..	635,293 ..	808,507
Total,.....	$19,383,381 ..	$8,387,046 ..	$8,497,868 ..	$15,789,474
For consumption,...	51,092,385 ..	87,494,169 ..	97,477,801 ..	59,755,699
Total on market,..	$70,475,766 ..	$95,881,215 ..	$105,975,669 ..	$75,545,173

Entered for Warehousing.

Manufactures of	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,	$5,028,533	$2,647,814	$3,981,742	$7,376,464
Cotton,	4,048,530	1,416,143	2,929,175	6,444,136
Silk,	3,667,521	776,862	1,778,646	5,746,806
Flax,	1,964,891	719,606	904,693	2,679,161
Miscellaneous,	1,515,876	494,489	771,147	1,308,079
Total,	$16,225,351	$6,054,914	$10,365,404	$23,554,646
For consumption,	51,092,385	87,494,169	97,477,801	59,755,699
Entered at the port,	$67,317,736	$93,549,083	$107,843,205	$83,310,345

In order to distinguish the dry goods from the general imports, we have compiled a table which gives at a single glance the whole imports of dry goods for the year, compared with the preceding three years:

Imports of Dry Goods at New-York for the Year ending June 30.

Manufactures of	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,	$22,063,565	$30,923,248	$35,418,825	$28,687,676
Cotton,	13,061,441	20,419,968	21,268,306	14,057,141
Silk,	21,248,620	27,517,771	35,462,352	27,827,488
Flax,	5,666,446	9,302,852	9,452,974	6,623,375
Miscellaneous,	5,277,664	5,385,244	6,240,748	6,114,665
Total imports,	$67,317,736	$93,549,083	$107,343,205	$83,310,345

The total cash duties received at New-York for the past five fiscal years have been $170,540,990, an average of about thirty-four millions of dollars, viz.:

1856–7,	$42,271,645
1857–8,	27,434,667
1858–9,	34,899,800
1859–60,	37,711,740
1860–61,	28,223,137

In order to illustrate the commerce of the State for ten years, we republish the tabular returns of domestic and foreign produce exported, the imports, and the increase of tonnage for each year, 1850—1860:

Foreign Commerce of the State of New-York, from July 1, 1850, to July 1, 1860.

	Exports.			Imports.	Tonnage Cleared.	
Years.	*Domestic.*	*Foreign.*	*Total.*	*Total.*	*American.*	*Foreign.*
1851,	$ 68,104,542	$ 17,902,477	$ 85,007,019	$ 141,546,588	$ 1,588,813	$ 878,819
1852,	74,042,581	13,441,875	87,484,456	182,329,806	1,570,927	906,798
1853,	66,080,855	12,175,935	78,206,290	178,270,999	1,959,902	1,064,742
1854,	105,551,740	16,982,906	122,534,646	195,427,933	1,918,317	1,035,154
1855,	96,414,808	17,316,480	113,731,288	164,776,511	1,861,682	1,140,197
1856,	109,848,509	9,262,991	119,111,500	210,162,454	2,136,877	1,385,577
1857,	119,197,301	15,605,997	134,803,298	236,498,485	2,188,670	1,405,211
1858,	89,089,790	19,801,134	108,340,924	178,475,786	2,152,885	1,132,568
1859,	104,726,546	12,813,279	117,539,825	229,181,849	2,554,184	1,276,706
1860,	126,060,967	19,494,482	145,555,449	248,489,877	3,883,585	1,190,750
Total,	$ 959,017,189	$ 154,297,506	$ 1,113,814,645	$ 1,915,154,188	$ 21,815,192	$ 11,436,517

RECAPITULATION OF FOREIGN COMMERCE OF NEW-YORK AND THE UNITED STATES FOR FIVE YEARS, AND THE PER CENTAGE OF NEW-YORK TO THE WHOLE.

YEAR.	*Imports State N. Y.*	*Other States.*	*Total U. S.*	*Per Cent.*
1855—1856,.....	$ 210,160,454 ..	$ 104,479,468 ..	$ 314,639,922 ..	66.79
1856—1857,.....	236,493,485 ..	124,396,656 ..	360,890,141 ..	65.53
1857—1858,.....	178,475,786 ..	104,187,414 ..	282,618,150 ..	63.15
1858—1859,.....	229,181,349 ..	109,586,781 ..	338,768,130 ..	67.65
1859—1860,.....	248,489,877 ..	113,676,377 ..	362,166,254 ..	68.61
Five years,.....	$ 1,102,800,901 ..	$ 556,276,696 ..	$ 1,659,077,597 ..	....
Average, five years,	220,560,180 ..	111,255,339 ..	331,815,519 ..	66.40

YEAR.	*Exports State N. Y.*	*Other States.*	*Total U. S.*	*Per Cent.*
1855—1856,.....	$ 119,111,500 ..	$ 207,853,408 ..	$ 326,964,908 ..	36.43
1856—1857,.....	134,808,298 ..	228,157,384 ..	362,960,682 ..	37.14
1857—1858,.....	108,340,924 ..	216,303,496 ..	324,644,420 ..	33.37
1858—1859,.....	117,539,825 ..	239,249,637 ..	356,789,462 ..	32.94
1859—1860,.....	145,555,449 ..	254,566,847 ..	400,122,296 ..	36.38
Five years,.....	$ 625,350,996 ..	$ 1,246,130,772 ..	$ 1,771,481,768 ..	....
Average, five years,	125,070,199 ..	249,226,154 ..	354,296,353 ..	35.26

The foreign export of wheat from this port to Great Britain, since 1st September last, has been over seventeen millions bushels. We extract the following from EDWARD BILL'S flour and grain circular:

FROM—	*Bbls. Flour.*	*Bbls. Corn Meal.*	*Bush. Wheat.*	*Bush. Corn.*
New-York, to July 12,....	1,547,657 ..	2,815 ..	17,825,883 ..	6,326,927
New-Orleans, to June 14,....	179,427 ..	996 ..	66,767 ..	1,464,267
Philadelphia, to July 4,....	173,894 ..	.... ..	1,433,803 ..	695,628
Baltimore, to July 4,....	127,031 ..	48 ..	947,346 ..	853,200
Boston, to July 5,....	96,081 ..	106 ..	13,032 ..	14,100
Other ports, to June 28,....	128,470 ..	.... ..	2,236,192 ..	15,451
Total since 1st Sept., 1860,...	2,252,560 ..	3,965 ..	22,523,023 ..	9,369,573
Same period, 1860,.....	443,245 ..	651 ..	2,383,369 ..	2,063,592
" 1859,.....	91,230 ..	58 ..	415,800 ..	842,013
" 1858,.....	1,163,148 ..	143 ..	5,847,159 ..	3,274,676

TO THE CONTINENT FROM—	*Bbls. Flour.*	*Bush. Wheat.*	*Bush. Corn.*	*Bush. Rye.*
New-York, to July 2, 1861,..	54,276 ..	1,760,489 ..	41,023 ..	124,116
Other ports, to latest dates,..	7,796 ..	9,073 ..	3,042 ..	....

Freights to English ports have checked the export demand, viz.: To Liverpool, 2*s.* 10½*d.* @ 3*s.* per bbl. on flour, and 9 @ 10¼*d.* per bush. on grain; to London, 3*s.* 6*d.* on flour, and 10½ @ 11¼*d.* on wheat; to Glasgow, 3*s.* 3*d.* on flour, and 10½*d.* on wheat; to France, 18*c.* on wheat.

EXPORTS FROM NEW-YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE FISCAL YEARS ENDING JUNE 30.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Domestic produce,....$	55,931,987 ..	$ 53,894,893 ..	$ 70,249,811 ..	$ 118,189,900
Foreign merch., (free,)	3,104,160 ..	2,202,868 ..	3,335,038 ..	6,111,200
" (dutiable,)	7,309,672 ..	3,596,336 ..	6,354,055 ..	2,224,600
Specie and bullion,....	34,322,071 ..	46,839,444 ..	58,097,646 ..	23,860,800
Total exports,.....$	100,667,890	$ 106,443,541	$ 138,036,550	$ 150,386,500
" exclusive of specie,	66,345,819	59,604,097	79,938,904	126,525,700

The message of Secretary CHASE to Congress contemplates an aggregate expenditure by the general government of $320,000,000 for the year. Of this sum, it is proposed to raise $80,000,000 by the tariff and the ordinary receipts of the Treasury, and $220,000,000 by loans and treasury notes.

I. Three year treasury notes or exchequer bills, bearing 7.30 per cent. interest, for the convenience of calculation, or two cents per day for each hundred dollars, or twenty cents per day for each thousand dollars; this interest payable semi-annually. It is thought that this mode of loan may become a popular measure, by distributing it in small sums among the people, to the extent of one hundred millions of dollars.

II. A thirty year funded stock, inscribed or coupon bonds, bearing seven per cent. interest, in sums of $500, $1,000 and $5,000, not to exceed one hundred millions of dollars, including sterling bonds in sums of £100, £500 and £1,000.

III. Treasury notes to the extent of twenty millions of dollars, in sums of ten and fifty dollars, for general circulation.

The Secretary proposed to Congress that a duty of 2½ cents per pound be laid on brown sugar, of 3 cents per pound on clayed sugar, of 4 cents per pound on loaf and other refined sugars, of 2½ cents per pound on the syrup of sugar cane; of 6 cents per pound on candy; of 6 cents per gallon on molasses, and of four cents per gallon on sour molasses; and it is also proposed that a duty of 5 cents per pound be imposed on coffee; 15 cents per pound on black tea, and 20 cents per pound on green tea. From these duties it is estimated that an additional revenue of not less than $20,000,000 annually may be raised, while the burden of this revenue upon our own people will be to some considerable degree mitigated by participation on the part of the foreign producers.

IV. Treasury notes, of $10 and $20, payable one year from date, bearing an interest of 3.65 per cent., or one cent per day per hundred dollars, convertible into treasury notes or exchequer bills, bearing 7.30 per cent. or on demand in coin. The aggregate not to exceed $50,000,000.

The dividends on rail-road shares, payable in July at Boston, were $1,150,156, viz.:

STOCKS. RAIL-ROAD COMPANIES.	*Capital.*	DIVIDENDS. *Jan.*, 1861.	*July*, 1861.	*Amount July*, 1861.
Berkshire Rail-Road,	$ 320,500	1¾	1¾	$ 5,609
Boston and Lowell,	1,830,000	4	3	54,900
Boston and Maine,	4,155,700	4	3½	145,450
Boston and Providence,	3,160,000	4	4	126,400
Boston and Worcester,	4,500,000	4	4	180,000
Fitchburg,	3,540,000	3	3	106,200
Eastern,	2,853,400	2	2	57,068
Eastern, in New-Hampshire,	492,500	2	2	9,850
Metropolitan, (horse,)	600,000	5	3	18,000
Middlesex, (horse,)	348,000	4	4	13,920
New-Bedford and Taunton,	500,000	3	3	15,000
Old Colony and Fall River,	3,015,100	3	3	90,453
Pittsfield and North Adams,	450,000	3	3	13,500
Providence and Worcester,	1,600,000	4	4	64,000
Stoughton Branch,	84,500	4	3	2,562
Taunton Branch,	250,000	4	4	10,000
Waltham and Watertown,	20,000	4	4	800
Western,	5,150,000	4	4	206,000
Worcester and Nashua,	15,222 shares,	$2½	$2	30,444
Total at Boston,				$ 1,150,156

The following is a recapitulation of rail-road and other dividends payable at Boston in July:

Miscellaneous,.....	$217,191	Manufacturing dividends,.	$545,900
Interest on bonds,.....	439,984	Rail-road dividends,.....	1,150,156
Total for July, 1861,.....	$2,353,231	Total for January, 1860,..	$2,992,891
do. Jan., 1861,.....	3,049,710	do. July, 1859,..	2,270,736
do. July, 1860,.....	3,088,759	do. January, 1859,..	2,435,342

The Bank of Commerce received instructions in June to pay, when due, the July coupons on the three millions Missouri State bonds issued to the Hannibal and St. Joseph Rail-Road Company. These bonds were issued under stringent restrictions, and, in case of default on the part of the company, the State authorities have the right to foreclose the road, they being a first mortgage on the entire line. The first mortgages of the Hannibal and St. Joseph Rail-Road Company are a lien, simply, on a million of acres of land. The company have also an issue of second mortgage bonds which is a second lien on the line.

The Secretary of the Treasury, in his communication to Congress, under date July, 1861, examines closely the sources of revenue for the coming year. His estimates are as follow for increased duties on sugar, molasses, tea and coffee:

	Estimated Consumption, 1860.	*Duty.*
2½ cents on foreign sugar,.....	300,000 tons, ..	$16,800,000
6 cents per gallon on molasses,.....	28,000,000 gallons, ..	1,680,000
15 cents per lb. on black tea,.....	13,800,000 lbs. ..	2,070,000
20 cents per lb. on green tea,.....	16,300,000 lbs. ..	3,260,000
5 cents per lb. on coffee,.....	180,000,000 lbs. ..	9,000,000
Total on sugar, tea and coffee,.....		$32,810,000

Allow for the large stock on hand, on which no duty will be realized, and for diminished consumption owing to the increased duty and the troubles at the South, the revenue this year may be estimated, as Secretary CHASE states, at twenty millions of dollars.

The duties above stated are.....		$32,810,000
Direct tax, about.....		21,000,000
Real property,.....	$11,272,053,881	
Personal property,.....	4,830,880,235	
Total United States,.....	$16,102,934,116	

Omitting the seceding States, the amount is as follows:

Real property,.....	$7,630,530,603
Personal property,.....	3,270,227,404
Total,.....	$10,900,758,007

The direct tax on these amounts would be as follows:

One-eighth of one per cent. on $16,102,934,116,.....	$20,128,667
Or, one-fifth of one per cent. on $10,900,758,007, property in the non-seceding States,.....	21,800,056
Or, 30-100 of one per cent. on $7,630,530,603, real property only,...	22,891,590

In other words, the tax of 12½ cents per hundred dollars on the whole real and personal estate of the country would be $20,128,000. Or, twenty cents per hundred dollars on the gross value, excluding the seceding States, would be $21,800,000. Or, thirty cents per hundred dollars on the real property alone, $22,891,000.

One of the three bases will probably be adopted, whereby a revenue exceeding twenty millions may be realized. There is no reason, however, why the South should be exempt. The Southern States must contribute, first or last, their due proportion of the direct tax.

The public debt on the 1st of July, 1861, was $90,867,828, or less than three dollars per *capita* of the whole population of the United States.

The Sugar Trade.—The Secretary of the Treasury proposes a duty of 2½ cents per pound on brown sugar; 3 cents on clayed sugar; 4 cents on loaf and refined; 2½ cents on syrup; 6 cents on candy, and 6 cents per gallon on molasses. The stock of sugar on hand on 1st July, 1861, was larger than for some years:

STOCK OF SUGAR AT THE FOUR PRINCIPAL PORTS.

STOCK IN	*Hhds.* Foreign, of 1,400 lbs.	*Hhds.* Domestic, of 1,100 lbs.	*Melado, hhds.* 1,400 lbs.	*Boxes,* of 450 lbs.	*Bags,* as per Specifications.	*Java, Boxes,* of 600 lbs.
New-York,	71,346	4,052	7,426	25,025	190,290	190
Boston,	8,596	....	166	9,328	144,033	4,315
Philadelphia,	9,943	261	....	4,181	8,980	....
Baltimore,	3,398	1,051	40	2,379	45,888	....
Total, July 1st,	93,283	5,364	7,632	40,913	389,191	4,505

The stock of sugar on hand July 1st, 1861, compared with previous years, was as follows:

	TOTAL TONS. 1861.	1860.	1859.	1858.
New-York,	64,390	62,917	59,865	29,237
Boston,	13,613	9,365	9,239	5,995
Philadelphia,	7,784	4,965	7,936	1,698
Baltimore,	5,353	5,922	6,618	2,714
	91,140	83,169	83,658	39,644

The imports of foreign and domestic sugars for four years, January to June, (six months,) were as follow:

	TOTAL OF THE FOUR PORTS. 1861.	1860.	1859.	1858.
January, tons,	9,877	8,833	13,141	11,703
February,	20,174	18,497	20,247	18,498
March,	41,433	31,167	38,277	32,894
April,	39,457	47,727	48,632	37,239
May,	55,652	52,031	42,961	36,038
June,	28,922	45,661	43,409	36,661
Total in six months,	195,515	203,916	206,667	173,033
July, tons,	....	52,262	32,646	29,859
August,	....	40,232	18,820	32,545
September,	....	27,915	9,642	15,711
October,	....	19,149	7,836	10,903
November,	....	12,110	8,076	8,011
December,	....	8,879	11,742	11,802
Total in twelve months,	....	364,463	295,429	281,064

Congress, on the 17th July, passed an act authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to raise $250,000,000, by loans and Treasury notes, for war expenses. Two tariff bills are now under consideration in Congress as we go to press with the concluding portions of this No. The results we will publish in our September No.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1. *The Works of Francis Bacon*, Baron of Verulam, Lord High Chancellor, &c. Collected and edited by JAMES SPEDDING, M. A. 12mo., Vol. vi. Boston: BROWN & TAGGARD.

The present volume of the Complete Works of FRANCIS BACON, while it forms the sixth volume in the order of publication, is the first volume of the entire series and also the first volume of the Philosophical Works. The remaining volumes will be published in regular order from volume one to ten, inclusive. In the first volume issued (volume xi.) was given a portrait of FRANCIS BACON, when a youth. The present volume, as the first of the series, properly contains his portrait at that period of life when these works were chiefly composed. The list of subscribers numbers nearly one thousand.

2. *The North American Review.* July, 1861. Boston: CROSBY, NICHOLS, LEE & Co.

The July number of the North American is just out. The following is the table of contents:—The Public Lands of the United States; Mrs. JANE TURRELL; The Venerable BEDE; BOUVIER'S Law Dictionary and Institute; Life of Major ANDRE; French Critics and Criticisms; M. TAINE; Burial; The Attic Bee; FRANCIS BACON; Michigan; New Books on Medicine; The Right of Secession; HUGH LATIMER; Critical Notices; New Publications. The original paper on the Right of Secession, which is a review of JEFF. DAVIS' message to the rebel Congress, will be read with much interest.

3. *Cyclopedia of Anecdotes of Literature and the Fine Arts.* By KAYLITT ARVINE. One vol. octavo. Published by GOULD & LINCOLN, Boston.

It is hardly possible to speak too highly of this excellent work. The laborious industry of the author, has brought together an innumerable host of anecdotes from every attainable source. It is a charming volume to read, and after one has read it, invaluable as a book of reference; affording every facility for the latter purpose by its admirable arrangement and copious indexes. We can heartily commend it to all who like to be amused or instructed.

4. The American Tract Society, Boston, have published recently the following volumes:

1. *Life of* DANIEL SAFFORD. 80 cents. 2. SWEDENBORG *and his Doctrine.* By Professor POND. 50 cents. 3. *Songs for my Children.* Illustrated. 30 cents. 4. *Sunday Alphabet of Animals.* Illustrated. 30 cents. 5. *Aunt* KATIE'S *Talks at Bedtime.* 25 cents. 6. *Walks and Talks.* 25 cents. 7. *Stories for Little Ones.* 25 cents. 8. 48 *Envelope Tracts,* in neat package. 10 cents. 9. Books for the Soldiers: *Sketch of Capt.* HEDLEY VICARS; *Sir* HENRY HAVELOCK; *The Soldier's Mission; The Soldier's Text Book;* and other books in flexible covers, for the pocket and knapsack, each 10 cents.

These recent publications of the Tract Society, instituted at Boston, in 1814, will be found unusually interesting. Among those for children, The Sunday Alphabet, Stories for Little Ones, and Songs for my Children, are especially attractive; the latter possess all the charm of Mother Goose, with far more wisdom in its rhymes. SWEDENBORG and his Doctrines is a revised edition, in very neat form, of Professor POND'S well known work. The Memoir of DANIEL SAFFORD is one of the best religious biographies that we have ever read; it is a pleasantly written story of the outward and inner life of a devoted Christian. The books for soldiers, are also excellent, and we should be glad to have thousands of them distributed among the men of our army.

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

Established July, 1839.

EDITED BY

J. SMITH HOMANS, (SECRETARY OF THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF THE STATE OF NEW-YORK,)

AND WILLIAM B. DANA, ATTORNEY AT LAW.

VOLUME XLV. AUGUST, 1861. NUMBER II.

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THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

SEPTEMBER, 1861.

TAXATION IN THE NEW AND OLD WORLD.

COMPARATIVE REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF GREAT BRITAIN, FRANCE AND THE UNITED STATES. —SOURCES OF REVENUE IN FRANCE.—HEADS OF EXPENDITURE.—HEADS OF TAXATION IN GREAT BRITAIN.—NEW SOURCES OF REVENUE IN THE UNITED STATES, FOR WAR PURPOSES ONLY.

In an examination of the bearings of the war tax and the revenue bills which have just become law in the United States, it may be well to compare the results with the usual revenues raised by two of the great European governments in times of peace. Such a comparison will show that, with a war on our hands, we are scarcely taxed to an amount equal to that raised from the people of France and England, when those nations are at peace.

England is now in a state of profound peace, so is France; yet their ordinary annual expenditures are, as compared with the United States—

Great Britain,.....	£ 70,000,000	or	$ 330,000,000
France,.....	1,800,000,000 francs,	or	340,000,000
The United States,.....			80,000,000

The ordinary expenditures of the United States in times of peace are seventy to eighty millions of dollars; and now, with a costly war to carry on, the expenses for a single year are estimated at less than those of Great Britain or France.

The government of Great Britain realized last year nearly seventy millions sterling from duties, internal taxes, excise, stamps, &c., viz.:

From Custom-House duties,.....	£ 23,000,000	or	$ 111,550,000
From excise,.....	18,000,000	or	87,300,000
From property tax,.....	12,000,000	or	58,200,000
From stamps,.....	8,000 000	or	38,800,000
From small taxes,.....	2,800,000	or	13 580,000
Miscellaneous,.....	6,200,000	or	30,070,000
	£ 70,000,000	or	$ 339,500,000

The British tariff alone yielded nearly double the sum ordinarily required for the expenses of the United States, viz.:

Duties on sugar,	£ 6,094,000	or	$ 30,470,000
Duties on tobacco,	5,674,000	or	28,370,000
Duties on tea,	5,444,000	or	57,220,000
Duties on spirits,	2,531,000	or	12,655,000
Duties on wines,	1,174,000	or	5,870,000
All other articles,	2,248,000	or	11,240,000
Year 1860,	£ 23,165,000	or	$ 115,825,000

We reduce the sterling values to five dollars per pound, for convenience of calculation. The real results will vary only about three per cent.

France, with a population of 35,781,628, has an annual revenue of 1,824,000,000 francs, or nearly ten dollars per head. Great Britain, with a population of 29,000,000, including Ireland and the Channel islands, has a revenue of seventy millions sterling, or nearly twelve dollars per head.

The United States, with a population of 31,429,891, had an aggregate revenue of $565,489,840 for the ten years, 1849—1858, or an average of a little exceeding fifty-seven millions annually, or less than two dollars per head.

The sources of revenue in France last year were as follow:

Budget of France for Year 1860.

Receipts.		*France.*
Contributions directes,	or Direct tax,	469,935,648
Enregistrement, timbre et domaines,	Recording and government stamps,	358,677,000
Produits des forets et de la peche,	Revenue from forests and fisheries,	37,755,500
Douanes et sels,	Custom-House and salts,	228,051,000
Contributions indirectes,	Indirect tax,	485,489,000
Produits des Postes,	Revenue of the Post-Office,	57,654,000
Divers revenus,	Product of sundry revenues,	146,672,856
Produits divers,	Divers productions,	41,619,375
	Francs,	1,825,854,379

Expenditures.		*France.*
Dette Publique,	or Int. and expenses of public debt,	560,148,676
Dotations,	Dotations and pensions,	41,979,394
Service des ministerès,	Services of the ministers,	866,932,356
Frais de regie des impots,	Expenses of collection of duties,	199,747,104
Remboursements et restitutions,	Reimbursements and restitutions,	124,550,248
Travaux extraordinaires,	Public works,	31,600,000
	Francs,	1,824,957,778

The enormous sum of 866,932,356 francs, or about one hundred and sixty-four millions of dollars, expended for the service of ministers, is divided as follow:

Minister of War,	fcs. 339,458,744
Minister of the Interior,	158,003,575
Minister of Marine,	123,503,143
Agriculture, commerce and "travaux publics,"	71,360,100
Algiers and the Colonies,	38,727,510
Minister of Instruction,	67,430,736
All others,	68,448,548
Total,	fcs. 866,932,356

Thus the government of France, in a time of peace, maintains an army of 400,000 men, at an expense of about sixty-three millions of dollars, and a navy costing twenty-four millions.

These enormous taxes are freely paid by the French people. They are necessary to the support of government. The people accommodate themselves to the burdens, which, in fact, fall mainly upon those most able to bear them, both in England and France. For instance, the licenses paid to the British government are, by bankers, £30 each; pawnbrokers, £15; auctioneers, £10; brewers, £2 to £78; wine dealers, £10; tobacco and snuff manufacturers, £5 to £31.

	£ s.	£ s.		£ s.	£ s.
Appraisers, each,	....	2 0	Malt roasters,	....	20 0
Attorneys,	6 0 to	9 0	Carriages,	....	7 10
Bankers,	....	30 0	Distillers of spirits,	....	10 10
Auctioneers,	....	10 0	Retailers of spirits,	2 4 to	14 6
Pawnbrokers,	7 6 to	15 0	Tobacco and snuff manu-		
Plate dealers,	2 6 to	5 15	facturers,	5 5 to	31 10
Brewers,	1 0 to	78 0	Dealers in foreign wines,	....	10 10
Sellers of beer, &c.,	3 6 to	4 4	Marriages,	10 to	5 0
Malsters,	1 0 to	4 14	Vinegar makers,	....	5 5

The British income tax is, in time of peace, much heavier than that levied by our Congress for war purposes, viz., seven to ten pence in the pound. Incomes of £100 to £150 pay seven pence per pound.

We have not received the census returns of 1860; but those for 1850 are sufficient to demonstrate that a land tax may yield a larger sum than hitherto estimated. By the census of 1850, there were in the United States—

Horses,	4,335,358
Asses and mules,	659,229
Milch cows,	6,392,044
Working oxen,	1,699,241
Other cattle,	10,268,856
Making a total of	23,354,728

These, no doubt, amount now to thirty millions in number, every one of which should be taxed one dollar per head annually. Bank notes, bills of exchange, promissory notes and deeds might be taxed under a stamp law. A poll tax would also be equitable, so that the expenses of government should fall in part upon every one, rich and poor. Thus, if our necessities should be so great, a revenue of two hundred millions of dollars might be realized without being a burden upon any special class, viz.:

From custom-house duties,	$ 50,000,000
Tax on real and personal property,	30,000,000
Tax $1 per head on cows, horses, &c.,	23,000,000
Income tax,	30,000,000
Poll tax,	30,000,000
From stamps,	20,000,000
Tax on watches, gold and silver,	10,000,000
Tax on distilleries,	10,000,000
	$ 203,000,000

Stamps are another considerable source of revenue in Great Britain, bringing in eight millions sterling. Bankers' checks or drafts pay from a penny to twenty-five shillings each; foreign bills of exchange, from

one penny to thirteen shillings each; leases, from six shillings to six pounds each; wills, from ten shillings to £270 each; dogs are taxed twelve shillings each; packs of hounds, £9 to £39; horses, ten to twenty-one shillings each. In fact, for the present emergency, we might with great advantage draw upon England and France for lessons on taxation.

COFFEE AND THE COFFEE TRADE.

I. Diminished Production in Brazil.—II. Causes of Decline.—III. Coffee Markets of Europe and the United States.

The upward tendency of the prices of coffee has been in consequence of the increased consumption of it both in Europe and the United States, by which the stocks that formerly were equal to five or six months consumption are now reduced to barely ten weeks, and are steadily diminishing, thus proving that the supplies from producing countries are diminishing instead of increasing to supply the demand.

Brazil for many years has supplied one-half of the production of the world, but, from the following statement of the crop exports, it will appear that the maximum of production has been reached there, and that it is now on the decline.

From 1845 to 1858 the average increase for each four years was about 5 per cent. per annum; since then the decrease has been 2½ per cent. per annum, although the crop now finishing has been a very large one. The crop of 1861 will be a short one, considerably below the average of the three preceding years.

Exports of Coffee from Rio de Janeiro during the Crop Years, July 1st to June 30th.

To June 30th.	Europe. Bags.	United States. Bags.	Total. Bags.	Average of 4 yrs. Bags.
1846,.....	843,485 ..	684,632 ..	1,528,117	
1847,.....	1,048,785 ..	755,773 ..	1,804,558	1,516,283
1848,.....	848,108 ..	773,617 ..	1,612,125	
1849,.....	530,181 ..	573,151 ..	1,111,332	
1850,.....	1,025,902 ..	858,764 ..	1,884,676	
1851,.....	925,806 ..	947,368 ..	1,873,174	1,817,927
1852,.....	872,527 ..	1,037,369 ..	1,909,896	
1853,.....	826,782 ..	757,181 ..	1,583,963	
1854,.....	1,401,736 ..	941,512 ..	2,343,248	
1855,.....	1,134,389 ..	1,396,254 ..	2,530,643	2,257,060
1856,.....	1,218,315 ..	1,208,761 ..	2,427,081	
1857,.....	839,646 ..	887,622 ..	1,727,269	
1858,.....	707,923 ..	1,262,472 ..	1,970,395	
1859,.....	926,799 ..	831,588 ..	1,758,387	2,022,208
1860,.....	1,354,996 ..	1,205,053 ..	2,560,049	
1861,.....	.... ..	Estimated,	1,800,000	

The decrease of the crop export from Rio de Janeiro is entirely owing to the effectual stoppage of the slave trade since 1850, by which the effective labor has been greatly diminished. Previous to 1850 it was estimated that the coffee estates required 5 per cent. per annum of new blacks to keep their stock good. Daily slave labor, which was 500 rs. per day, has risen to 21,000 per day, or 300 per cent. Slaves have also risen nearly in proportion, in consequence of the supply being wholly cut

off, and foreign immigration being yet on a very limited scale, notwithstanding it is very liberally encouraged by the government. Free European labor will never mix freely with slave labor, especially in a tropical climate and an entirely new cultivation.

The supply of coffee from Brazil is entirely a question of labor, and unless they can receive an adequate supply, the export will gradually diminish.

No more slave labor will be admitted. Coolie labor has been tried and will not answer. Free labor is only desired, but as yet the supply has been very limited.

The Secretary of the Treasury having recommended a duty on coffee, and Congress having levied a duty of four cents per pound, it may be well to refer to the present condition of the coffee trade of the United States:

First. The stock on hand is now larger than for many years, being 9,235 tons, or 174 per cent. beyond that of July, 1860, viz.:

	Total Tons.			
Stock in	1861.	1860.	1859.	1858.
New-York,.....	11,317	3,346	5,814	2,418
Boston,.....	891	361	1,535	926
Philadelphia, ...	481	none.	1,874	1,177
Baltimore,.....	1,557	572	929	867
New-Orleans,.....	429	1,071	2,214	2,214
Total tons 1st July,.....	14,675	5,350	11,866	7,602

Second. The imports of coffee for the past six months are forty per cent. beyond the same period of 1860, viz.:

	Total Tons.			
Imports at	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861
New-York,,.....	15,490	20,654	16,090	27,478
Boston,.....	3,506	4,789	2,788	1,740
Philadelphia, ...	4,596	8,073	2,906	4,766
Baltimore,.....	5,997	7,673	5,692	7,466
New-Orleans,.....	9,632	16,143	10,853	9,620
Total tons six months,.....	29,221	57,332	37,729	51,070

Compared with the stocks of coffee in the six principal ports of Europe, the results are as follows:

	Total Tons.				
Stock 1st June in	1861.	1860.	1859.	1858.	*Average.*
Holland,.....	19,800	32,750	34,600	44,850	33,000
Antwerp,.....	3,900	3,300	3,300	6,700	4,300
Hamburg,.....	8,500	7,500	6,000	11,500	8,375
Trieste,.....	4,850	3,200	2,500	4,200	3,687
Havre,.....	7,350	4,500	2,800	5,650	5,075
Great Britain,.....	5,750	7,950	6,400	10,550	7,663
Total tons June 1,..	50,150	59,200	55,600	83,450	62,100

The ordinary consumption of coffee in the United States is from forty-five to fifty thousand tons every six months, so that there was on 1st July a stock on hand equivalent to about two months' consumption.

The variations have been remarkable for some years. The lowest and highest prices, and lowest average and highest average, since 1846, having been as follows per pound for Rio coffee in the New-York market:

Year.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest average.	Highest average.
1846,	6¼ cts.	8¼ cts.	$7 04	$7 60
1847,	6½	8½	6 88	7 72
1848,	5½	8	6 08	7 13
1849,	5⅝	10⅝	6 84	7 88
1850,	9	14¼	10 25	11 40
1851,	7½	11⅝	8 84	10 04
1852,	7½	9⅝	8 12	9 52
1853,	8	11⅝	9 08	10 40
1854,	9	12½	9 40	11 48
1855,	8¾	12	9 52	11 12
1856,	9½	12½	10 24	12 00
1857,	9½	12½	10 52	11 72
1858,	9½	12	10 29	11 52
1859,	10¼	13	10 95	12 21
1860,	11½	15½	13 16	14 21

ACTS OF THE THIRTY-SEVENTH CONGRESS.

Special Session, July—August, 1861.

I. The Collection of Duties on Imports. II. An Act to Provide Increased Revenue from Imports, to Pay the Interest on the Public Debt, and for other purposes. III. An Act to Increase the Consular Representation of the United States during the present Insurrection.

AN ACT FURTHER TO PROVIDE FOR THE COLLECTION OF DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND FOR OTHER PURPOSES.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That whenever it shall, in the judgment of the President, by reason of unlawful combinations of persons in opposition to the laws of the United States, become impracticable to execute the revenue laws and collect the duties on imports by the ordinary means, in the ordinary way, at any port of entry in any collection district, he is authorized to cause such duties to be collected at any port of delivery in said district until such obstruction shall cease; and in such case the surveyors at said ports of delivery shall be clothed with all the powers and be subject to all the obligations of collectors of ports of entry; and the Secretary of the Treasury, with the approbation of the President, shall appoint such number of weighers, gaugers, measurers, inspectors, appraisers and clerks as may be necessary, in his judgment, for the faithful execution of the revenue laws at said ports of delivery, and shall fix and establish the limits within which such ports of delivery are constituted ports of entry as aforesaid; and all the provisions of law regulating the issue of marine papers, the coasting trade, the warehousing of imports and collection of duties shall apply to the ports of entry so constituted in the same manner as they do to ports of entry established by the laws now in force.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That if, from the cause mentioned in the foregoing section, in the judgment of the President, the revenue from duties on imports cannot be effectually collected at any port of entry in any collection district, in the ordinary way and by the ordinary means, or by the course provided in the foregoing section, then and in that case he may direct that the custom-house for the district be established in any secure place within said district, either on land or on

board any vessel in said district or at sea near the coast; and in such case the collector shall reside at such place, or on shipboard, as the case may be, and there detain all vessels and cargoes arriving within or approaching said district, until the duties imposed by law on said vessels and their cargoes are paid in cash: *Provided*, That if the owner or consignee of the cargo on board any vessel detained as aforesaid, or the master of said vessel, shall desire to enter a port of entry in any other district in the United States where no such obstructions to the execution of the laws exist, the master of such vessel may be permitted so to change the destination of the vessel and cargo in his manifest, whereupon the collector shall deliver him a written permit to proceed to the port so designated: *And provided further*, That the Secretary of the Treasury shall, with the approbation of the President, make proper regulations for the enforcement on shipboard of such provisions of the laws regulating the assessment and collection of duties as in his judgment may be necessary and practicable.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be unlawful to take any vessel or cargo detained as aforesaid from the custody of the proper officers of the customs, unless by process of some court of the United States; and in case of any attempt otherwise to take such vessel or cargo by any force, or combination, or assemblage of persons, too great to be overcome by the officers of the customs, it shall and may be lawful for the President, or such person or persons as he shall have empowered for that purpose, to employ such part of the army or navy or militia of the United States, or such force of citizen volunteers as may be deemed necessary for the purpose of preventing the removal of such vessel or cargo, and protecting the officers of the customs in retaining the custody thereof.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That if, in the judgment of the President, from the cause mentioned in the first section of this act, the duties upon imports in any collection district cannot be effectually collected by the ordinary means and in the ordinary way, or in the mode and manner provided in the foregoing sections of this act, then and in that case the President is hereby empowered to close the port or ports of entry in said district, and in such case give notice thereof by proclamation; and thereupon all right of importation, warehousing and other privileges incident to ports of entry shall cease and be discontinued at such port so closed, until opened by the order of the President on the cessation of such obstructions; and if, while said ports are so closed, any ship or vessel from beyond the United States, or having on board any articles subject to duties, shall enter or attempt to enter any such port, the same, together with its tackle, apparel, furniture and cargo, shall be forfeited to the United States.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That whenever the President, in pursuance of the provisions of the second section of the act entitled "An act to provide for the calling forth of militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions, and to repeal the act now in force for that purpose," approved February 28, 1795, shall have called forth the militia to suppress combinations against the laws of the United States, and to cause the laws to be duly executed, and the insurgents shall have failed to disperse by the time directed by the President, and when said insurgents claim to act under the authority of any State or States, and such claim is not disclaimed or repudiated by the persons

exercising the functions of government in such State or States, or in the part or parts thereof in which said combination exists, nor such insurrection suppressed by said State or States, then and in such case it may and shall be lawful for the President, by proclamation, to declare that the inhabitants of such State, or any section or part thereof, where such insurrection exists, are in a state of insurrection against the United States; and thereupon all commercial intercourse by and between the same and the citizens thereof and the citizens of the rest of the United States shall cease and be unlawful so long as such condition of hostility shall continue; and all goods and chattels, wares and merchandise, coming from said State or section into the other parts of the United States, and all proceeding to such State or section, by land or water, shall, together with the vessel or vehicle conveying the same, or conveying persons to or from such State or section, be forfeited to the United States: *Provided, however*, That the President may, in his discretion, license and permit commercial intercourse with any such part of said State or section, the inhabitants of which are so declared in a state of insurrection, in such articles, and for such time, and by such persons as he, in his discretion, may think most conducive to the public interest; and such intercourse, so far as by him licensed, shall be conducted and carried on only in pursuance of rules and regulations prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury; and the Secretary of the Treasury may appoint such officers at places where officers of the customs are not now authorized by law as may be needed to carry into effect such licenses, rules and regulations; and officers of the customs and other officers shall receive for services under this section, and under said rules and regulations, such fees and compensation as are now allowed for similar service under other provisions of law.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after fifteen days after the issuing of the said proclamation, as provided in the last foregoing section of this act, any ship or vessel belonging in whole or in part to any citizen or inhabitant of said State or part of a State whose inhabitants are so declared in a state of insurrection, found at sea, or in any port of the rest of the United States, shall be forfeited to the United States.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That in the execution of the provisions of this act, and of the other laws of the United States providing for the collection of duties on imports and tonnage, it may and shall be lawful for the President, in addition to the revenue cutters in service, to employ in aid thereof such other suitable vessels as may, in his judgment, be required.

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That the forfeitures and penalties incurred by virtue of this act may be mitigated and remitted, in pursuance of the authority vested in the Secretary of the Treasury by the act entitled "An act providing for mitigating or remitting the forfeitures, penalties and disabilities accruing in certain cases therein mentioned," approved March third, seventeen hundred and ninety-seven, or in cases where special circumstances may seem to require it, according to regulations to be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury.

SEC. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That proceedings on seizures for forfeitures under this act may be pursued in the courts of the United States in any district into which the property so seized may be taken and proceedings instituted; and such courts shall have and entertain as full jurisdiction over the same as if the seizure was made in that district.

Approved July 13, 1861.

THE TARIFF ACT OF AUGUST, 1861.

AN ACT TO PROVIDE INCREASED REVENUE FROM IMPORTS, TO PAY THE INTEREST ON THE PUBLIC DEBT, AND FOR OTHER PURPOSES.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That from and after the date of the passage of this act, in lieu of the duties heretofore imposed by law on the articles hereinafter mentioned, and on such as may now be exempt from duty, there shall be levied, collected and paid, on the goods, wares and merchandise herein enumerated and provided for, imported from foreign countries, the following duties and rates of duty, that is to say:

First. On Raw Sugar, commonly called Muscovado or Brown Sugar, and on Sugars not advanced above No. 12, Dutch standard, by claying, boiling, clarifying or other process, and on Syrup of Sugar, or of Sugar Cane and Concentrated Molasses, or Concentrated Melado, 2 cents per pound; and on White and Clayed Sugar, when advanced beyond the raw state, above No. 12, Dutch standard, by clarifying or other process, and not yet refined, 2½ cents per pound; on Refined Sugars, whether loaf, lump, crushed or pulverized, 4 cents per pound; on Sugars, after being refined, when they are tinctured, colored or in any way adulterated, and on Sugar Candy, 6 cents per pound.

On Molasses, 5 cents per gallon.

Provided, That all Syrups of Sugar or of Sugar Cane, Concentrated Molasses or Melado, entered under the name of Molasses, or any other name than Syrup of Sugar or of Sugar Cane, Concentrated Molasses or Concentrated Melado, shall be liable to forfeiture to the United States.

On all Teas, 15 cents per pound.

On Almonds, 4 cents per pound; Shelled Almonds, 6 cents per pound.

On Brimstone, crude, $3 per ton; on Brimstone, in rolls, $6 per ton.

On Coffee, of all kinds, 4 cents per pound.

On Cocoa, 3 cents per pound; on Cocoa Leaves and Cocoa Shells, 2 cents per pound; on Cocoa, prepared or manufactured, 8 cents per pound.

On Chicory Root, 1 cent per pound; and on Chicory, ground, 2 cents per pound.

On Chocolate, 6 cents per pound.

On Cassia, 10 cents per pound; on Cassia Buds, 15 cents per pound.

On Cinnamon, 20 cents per pound.

On Cloves, 8 cents per pound.

On Cayenne Pepper, 6 cents per pound; on Cayenne Pepper, ground, 8 cents per pound.

On Currants, 5 cents per pound.

On Argol, 3 cents per pound.

On Cream Tartar, 6 cents per pound.

On Tartaric Acid and Tartar Emetic and Rochelle Salts, 10 cents per pound.

On Dates, 2 cents per pound.

On Figs, 5 cents per pound.

On Ginger Root, 3 cents per pound; on Ginger, ground, 5 cents per pound.

On Liquorice Paste and Juice, 5 cents per pound; Liquorice Root, 1 cent per pound.

On Mace and Nutmegs, 25 cents per pound.

On Nuts of all kinds, not otherwise provided for, 2 cents per pound.

On Pepper, 6 cents per pound.

On Pimento, 6 cents per pound.

On Plums, 5 cents per pound.

On Prunes, 5 cents per pound.

On Raisins, 5 cents per pound.

On unmanufactured Russia Hemp, $40 per ton; on Manilla and other Hemps of India, $25 per ton.

On Lead, in pigs or bars, $1 50 per 100 pounds; in sheets, $2 25 per 100 pounds; on White Lead, dry or ground in oil, and Red Lead, $2 25 per 100 pounds.

On Salt, in sacks, 18 cents per 100 pounds, and in bulk, 12 cents per 100 pounds.

On Soda Ash, ½ cent per pound; on Bicarbonate of Soda, 1 cent per pound; on Sal Soda, ½ cent per pound; on Caustic Soda, 1 cent per pound.

On Chloride of Lime, 30 cents per one hundred pounds.

On Saltpetre, crude, 1 cent per pound; refined or partially refined, 2 cents per pound.

On Spirits of Turpentine, 10 cents per gallon.

On Oil of Cloves, 70 cents per pound.

On Brandy, $1 25 per gallon.

On Spirits distilled from grain or other material, 50 cents per gallon.

On Gum Copal, and other Gums or resinous substances used for the same or similar purposes as Gum Copal, 10 cents per pound.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That, from and after the day and year aforesaid, there shall be levied, collected and paid, on the importation of the articles hereinafter mentioned, the following duties, that is to say:

On Arrow Root, 20 per centum *ad valorem*.

On Ginger, preserved or pickled, 30 per centum *ad valorem*.

On Limes, Lemons, Oranges, Bananas and Plantains, 20 per centum *ad valorem*.

On Peruvian Bark, 15 per centum *ad valorem*.

On Quinine, 30 per centum *ad valorem*.

On Rags, of whatever material, 10 per centum *ad valorem*.

On Gunpowder, 30 per centum *ad valorem*.

On Feathers and Downs, 30 per centum *ad valorem*.

On Hides, 10 per centum *ad valorem*.

On Sole and Bend Leather, 30 per centum *ad valorem*.

On India Rubber, raw or unmanufactured, 10 per centum *ad valorem*.

On India Rubber Shoes and Boots, 30 per centum *ad valorem*.

On Ivory unmanufactured, and on vegetable Ivory, 10 per centum *ad valorem*.

On Wines of all kinds, 50 per centum *ad valorem*.

On Silk in the gum, not more advanced in the manufacture than singles, tram, and thrown or organzine, 25 per centum *ad valorem.*

On all Silks valued at not over $1 per square yard, 30 per centum *ad valorem.*

On all Silks valued at over $1 per square yard, 40 per centum *ad valorem.*

On all Silk Velvets, or Velvets of which Silk is the component material of chief value, valued at $3 per square yard or under, 35 per centum *ad valorem;* valued at over $3 per square yard, 40 per centum *ad valorem.*

On Floss Silks, 30 per centum *ad valorem.*

On Silk Ribbons, Galloons, Braids, Fringes, Laces, Tassels, Buttons, Button Cloths, Trimmings, and on Silk Twist, Twist composed of Mohair and Silk, Sewing Silk in the gum or purified, and all other manufactures of Silk, or of which Silk shall be the component material of chief value, not otherwise provided for, 40 per centum *ad valorem.*

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That all articles, goods, wares and merchandise, imported from beyond the Cape of Good Hope in foreign vessels, not entitled by reciprocal treaties to be exempt from discriminating duties, tonnage and other charges, and all other articles, goods, wares and merchandise, not imported direct from the place of their growth or production, or in foreign vessels, entitled by reciprocal treaties to be exempt from discriminating duties, tonnage and other charges, shall be subject to pay, in addition to the duties imposed by this act, 10 per centum *ad valorem. Provided*, That this rule shall not apply to goods, wares and merchandise imported from beyond the Cape of Good Hope in American vessels.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the passage of this act, there shall be allowed on all articles wholly manufactured of materials imported, on which duties have been paid, when exported, a drawback equal in amount to the duty paid on such materials, and no more, to be ascertained under such regulations as shall be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury: *Provided*, That 10 per centum on the amount of all drawbacks, so allowed, shall be retained for the use of the United States, by the collectors paying such drawbacks respectively.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That all goods, wares and merchandise actually on shipboard and bound to the United States, and all goods, wares and merchandise on deposit in warehouses or public stores at the date of the passage of this act, shall be subject to pay such duties as provided by law before and at the time of the passage of this act: *And provided further*, That all goods deposited in public store or bonded warehouse after this act takes effect and goes into operation, if designed for consumption in the United States, must be withdrawn therefrom, or the duties thereon paid in three months after the same are deposited; and goods designed for exportation and consumption in foreign countries may be withdrawn by the owner at any time before the expiration of three years after the same are deposited; such goods, if not withdrawn in three years, to be regarded as abandoned to the government, and sold under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe, and the proceeds paid into the Treasury: *Provided*, That merchandise, upon which the owner may have neglected to pay duties within three months from the time of its deposit, may be withdrawn and entered for consumption at any time within two years of the time of its deposit, upon the payment of the legal duties,

with an addition of 25 per centum thereto: *Provided, also*, That merchandise upon which duties have been paid, if exported to a foreign country within three years, shall be entitled to return duties, proper evidence of such merchandise having been landed abroad to be furnished to the collector by the importer, one per centum of said duties to be retained by the government.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That the act entitled "An act to provide for the payment of outstanding Treasury Notes, to authorize a loan, to regulate and fix the duties on imports, and for other purposes," approved March 2d, 1861, be, and the same is hereby amended as follows, that is to say:

First.—In section six, article 1st, after the words "in Cordials and," strike out "Liquors" and insert "Liqueurs."

Second.—In the same section, after the word "represent," insert "*Provided, also*, That no lower rate or amount of duty shall be levied, collected and paid on Brandy, Spirits and all other spirituous beverages, than that now fixed by law for the description of first proof, but shall be increased in proportion for any greater strength than the strength of first proof."

Third.—Section twelve, article first, after the words "eighteen cents," where they first occur, insert "or less."

Fourth.—Section thirteen, article second, after the word "manufacturer," insert "except Hosiery."

Fifth.—In the same section, article third, strike out "Wool" wherever it occurs, and insert in each place "Worsted."

Sixth.—In section fourteen, article first, after the words "ten per centum" insert "*ad valorem*."

Seventh.—In section fifteen, before the word "Yarns," insert "Hemp;" in the same section, after the word "Sheetings," insert "of Flax or Hemp," and strike out "Jute Goods," and, in lieu thereof, insert "Jute Yarns."

Eighth.—In section twenty-two, strike out the words "Unwrought Clay, $3 per ton."

Ninth.—In section nineteen, strike out "compositions of glass or paste, not set, intended for use by jewellers."

Tenth.—In section twenty-two, strike out "compositions of glass or paste, when set."

Eleventh.—In section twenty-three, article Sheathing Metal, strike out "yard" and insert "foot."

In section seven, clause fifth, the words "on Screws, washed or plated, and all other Screws, of iron or any other metal," shall be stricken out, and the words "on Screws, of any other metal than iron," shall be inserted.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That all acts and parts of acts repugnant to the provisions of this act be, and the same are hereby repealed; *Provided*, That the existing laws shall extend to and be in force for the collection of the duties imposed by this act for the prosecution and punishment of all offences, and for the recovery, collection, distribution and remission of all fines, penalties and forfeitures, as fully and effectually as if every regulation, penalty, forfeiture, provision, clause, matter and thing to that effect in the existing laws contained had been inserted in and re-enacted by this act.

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That a direct tax of twenty millions of dollars be and is hereby annually laid upon the United States, and the same shall be and is hereby apportioned to the States, respectively, in manner following:*

Maine,	$420,826 00	Indiana,	$ 904,875 33
New-Hampshire,	218,406 66	Illinois,	1,146,551 33
Vermont,	211,068 00	Missouri,	761,127 33
Massachusetts,	824,581 33	Kansas,	71,743 33
Rhode Island,	116,963 66	Arkansas,	261,886 00
Connecticut,	308,214 00	Michigan,	501,763 33
New-York,	2,603,918 66	Florida,	77,522 66
New-Jersey,	450,134 00	Texas,	355,106 66
Pennsylvania,	1,946,719 33	Iowa,	452,088 00
Delaware,	74,681 33	Wisconsin,	519,688 66
Maryland,	436,823 33	California,	254,538 66
Virginia,	937,550 66	Minnesota,	108,524 00
North Carolina,	576,194 66	Oregon,	35,140 66
South Carolina,	363,570 66	New-Mexico,	62,648 00
Georgia,	584,267 33	Utah,	26,982 00
Alabama,	529,313 33	Washington,	7,755 33
Mississippi,	413,084 66	Nebraska,	19,312 00
Louisiana,	385,886 66	Nevada,	4,592 66
Ohio,	1,567,089 33	Colorado,	22,905 33
Kentucky,	713,695 33	Dacotah,	3,241 33
Tennessee,	669,498 00	District Columbia,	49,437 33

SEC. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That, for the purpose of assessing the above tax and collecting the same, the President of the United States be and he is hereby authorized to divide, respectively, the States and territories of the United States and the District of Columbia into convenient collection districts, and to nominate and, by and with the advice of the Senate, to appoint an assessor and a collector for each such district, who shall be freeholders and resident within the same: *Provided*, That any of said States and territories, as well as the District of Columbia, may, if the President shall deem it proper, be erected into one district: *And provided further*, That the appointment of said assessors and collectors, or any of them, shall not be made until on or after the second Tuesday in February, one thousand eight hundred and sixty-two.

SEC. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That before any such collector shall enter upon the duties of his office he shall execute a bond for such amount as shall be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, with sureties to be approved as sufficient by the Solicitor of the Treasury, containing the condition that said collector shall justly and faithfully account for to the United States, and pay over, in compliance with the order or regulations of the Secretary of the Treasury, all public moneys which may come into his hands or possession; which bond shall be filed in the office of the First Comptroller of the Treasury, to be by him directed to be put in suit upon any breach of the condition thereof. And such collectors shall, from time to time, renew, strengthen and increase their official bonds, as the Secretary of the Treasury may direct.

SEC. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That each of the assessors shall divide his district into a convenient number of assessment districts, within each of which he shall appoint one respectable freeholder to be an assist-

* The apportionment by States is here thrown into tabular form for greater convenience of reference.

ant assessor; and each assessor and assistant assessor so appointed, and accepting the appointment, shall, before he enters on the duties of his appointment, take and subscribe, before some competent magistrate, or some collector, to be appointed by this act, (who is hereby empowered to administer the same,) the following oath or affirmation, to wit: "I, A. B., do swear, or affirm, [as the case may be,] that I will, to the best of my knowledge, skill and judgment, diligently and faithfully execute the office and duties of assessor for, [naming the assessment district,] without favor or partiality, and that I will do equal right and justice in every case in which I shall act as assessor." And a certificate of such oath or affirmation shall be delivered to the collector of the district for which such assessor or assistant assessor shall be appointed. And every assessor or assistant assessor acting in the said office without having taken the said oath or affirmation shall forfeit and pay one hundred dollars, one moiety thereof to the use of the United States and the other moiety thereof to him who shall first sue for the same; to be recovered, with costs of suit, in any court having competent jurisdiction.

SEC. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of the Treasury shall establish regulations suitable and necessary for carrying this act into effect; which regulations shall be binding on each assessor and his assistants in the performance of the duties enjoined by or under this act, and shall also frame instructions for the said assessors and their assistants; pursuant to which instructions the said assessors shall, on the first day of March next, direct and cause the several assistant assessors in the district to inquire after and concerning all lands, lots of ground, with their improvements and dwelling-houses, made liable to taxation under this act, by reference as well to any lists of assessment or collection taken under the laws of the respective States as to any other records or documents, and by all other lawful ways and means, and to value and enumerate the said objects of taxation in the manner prescribed by this act, and in conformity with the regulations and instructions above mentioned.

SEC. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That the said direct tax laid by this act shall be assessed and laid on the value of all lands and lots of ground, with their improvements and dwelling-houses, which several articles subject to taxation shall be enumerated and valued, by the respective assessors, at the rate each of them is worth in money on the first day of April, eighteen hundred and sixty-two: *Provided, however*, That all property, of whatever kind, coming within any of the foregoing descriptions, and belonging to the United States, or any State, or permanently or specially exempted from taxation by the laws of the State wherein the same may be situated at the time of the passage of this act, together with such property belonging to any individual, who actually resides thereon, as shall be worth the sum of five hundred dollars, shall be exempted from the aforesaid enumeration and valuation, and from the direct tax aforesaid: *And provided further*, That in making such assessments due regard shall be had to any valuation that may have been made under the authority of the State or territory at any period nearest to said first day of April.

SEC. 14. *And be it further enacted*, That the respective assistant assessors shall, immediately after being required as aforesaid by the assessors, proceed through every part of their respective districts, and shall require all persons owning, possessing or having the care or management of any lands, lots of ground, buildings or dwelling-houses, lying and being within

the collection district where they reside, and liable to a direct tax as aforesaid, to deliver written lists of the same, which lists shall be made in such manner as may be directed by the assessor, and, as far as practicable, conformably to those which may be required for the same purpose under the authority of the respective States.

SEC. 15. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person owning, possessing or having the care or management of property liable to a direct tax as aforesaid, shall not be prepared to exhibit a written list when required as aforesaid, and shall consent to disclose the particulars of any and all the lands and lots of ground, with their improvements, buildings and dwelling-houses, taxable as aforesaid, then and in that case it shall be the duty of the officer to make such list, which, being distinctly read and consented to, shall be received as the list of such person.

SEC. 16. *And be it further enacted*, That if any such person shall deliver or disclose to any assessor or assistant assessor appointed in pursuance of this act, and requiring a list or lists as aforesaid, any false or fraudulent list, with intent to defeat or evade the valuation or enumeration hereby intended to be made, such person so offending, and being thereof convicted before any court having competent jurisdiction, shall be fined in a sum not exceeding five hundred dollars, at the discretion of the court, and shall pay all costs and charges of prosecution; and the valuation and enumeration required by this act shall, in all such cases, be made, as aforesaid, upon lists according to the form above described, to be made out by the assessors and assistant assessors respectively, which list the said assessors are hereby authorized and required to make according to the best information they can obtain, and for the purpose of making which they are hereby authorized to enter into and upon all and singular the premises respectively; and from the valuation and enumeration so made there shall be no appeal.

SEC. 17. *And be it further enacted*, That in case any person shall be absent from his place of residence at the time an assessor shall call to receive the list of such person, it shall be the duty of such assessor or assistant assessor to leave at the house or place of residence of such person, with some person of suitable age and discretion, a written note or memorandum, requiring him to present to such assessor the list or lists required by this act within ten days from the date of such note or memorandum.

SEC. 18. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person, on being notified or required as aforesaid, shall refuse or neglect to give such list or lists as aforesaid within the time required by this act, it shall be the duty of the assessor for the assessment district within which such person shall reside, and he is hereby authorized and required to enter into and upon the lands, buildings, dwelling-houses and premises, if it be necessary, of such persons so refusing or neglecting, and to make, according to the best information which he can obtain, and on his own view and information, such lists of the lands and lots of ground, with their improvements, buildings and dwelling-houses, owned or possessed, or under the care or management of such person, as are required by this act, which lists, so made and subscribed by such assessor, shall be taken and reputed as good and sufficient lists of the persons and property for which such person is to be taxed for the purposes of this act.

SEC. 19. *And be it further enacted*, That whenever there shall be in

any assessment district any property, lands and lots of ground, buildings or dwelling-houses, not owned or possessed by or under the care and management of any person or persons within such district, and liable to be taxed as aforesaid, and no list of which shall be transmitted to the assessor in the manner provided by this act, it shall be the duty of the assessor for such district, and he is hereby authorized and required, to enter into and upon the real estate, if it be necessary, and take such view thereof, and make lists of the same, according to the form prescribed, which lists, being subscribed by the said assessor, shall be taken and reputed as good and sufficient lists of such property, under and for the purposes of this act.

SEC. 20. *And be it further enacted*, That the owners, possessors or persons having the care or management of lands, lots of ground, buildings and dwelling-houses, not lying or being within the assessment district in which they reside, shall be permitted to make out and deliver the lists thereof required by this act, (provided the assessment district in which the said objects of taxation lie or be is therein distinctly stated,) at the time and in the manner prescribed, to the assessor of the assessment district wherein such persons reside. And it shall be the duty of the assessors, in all such cases, to transmit such lists, at the time and in the manner prescribed for the transmission of the lists of the objects of taxation lying and being within their respective assessment districts, to the assessor of the collection district wherein the said objects of taxation shall lie or be immediately after the receipt thereof; and the said lists shall be valid and sufficient for the purposes of this act; and on the delivery of every such list, the person making and delivering the same shall pay to the assessor one dollar, which he shall retain to his own use.

SEC. 21. *And be it further enacted*, That the lists aforesaid shall be taken with reference to the day fixed for that purpose by this act as aforesaid; and the assistant assessors respectively, after collecting the said lists, shall proceed to arrange the same, and to make two general lists, the first of which shall exhibit, in alphabetical order, the names of all persons liable to pay a tax under this act residing within the assessment district, together with the value and assessment of the objects liable to taxation within such district for which each such person is liable, and, whenever so required by the assessor, the amount of direct tax payable by each person on such objects under the State laws imposing direct taxes; and the second list shall exhibit, in alphabetical order, the names of all persons, residing out of the collection district, owners of property within the district, together with the value and assessment thereof, with the amount of direct tax payable thereon as aforesaid. The forms of the said general lists shall be devised and prescribed by the assessor, and lists taken according to such form shall be made out by the assistant assessors and delivered to the assessors within sixty days after the day fixed by this act as aforesaid, requiring lists from individuals. And if any assistant assessor shall fail to perform any duty assigned by this act within the time prescribed by his precept, warrant or other legal instructions, not being prevented therefrom by sickness or other unavoidable accident, every such assistant assessor shall be discharged from office, and shall, moreover, forfeit and pay two hundred dollars, to be recovered, for the use of the United States, in any court having competent jurisdiction, with costs of suit.

SEC. 22. *And be it further enacted*, That immediately after the valuations and enumerations shall have been completed as aforesaid, the assessor in each collection district shall, by advertisement in some public newspaper, if any there be in such district, and by written notifications, to be publicly posted up in at least four of the most public places in each collection district, advertise all persons concerned of the place where the said lists, valuations and enumerations may be seen and examined, and that, during twenty-five days after the publication of the notifications as aforesaid, appeals will be received and determined by him relative to any erroneous or excessive valuations or enumerations by the assessor. And it shall be the duty of the assessor in each collection district, during twenty-five days after the date of publication to be made as aforesaid, to submit the proceedings of the assistant assessors, and the list by them received or taken as aforesaid, to the inspection of any and all persons who shall apply for that purpose; and the said assessors are hereby authorized to receive, hear and determine, in a summary way, according to law and right, upon any and all appeals which may be exhibited against the proceedings of the said assessors: *Provided always*, That it shall be the duty of said assessor to advertise and attend, not less than two successive days of the said twenty-five, at the court-house of each county within his collection district, there to receive and determine upon the appeals aforesaid: *And provided, also*, That the question to be determined by the assessor, on an appeal respecting the valuation of property, shall be, whether the valuation complained of be or be not in a just relation or proportion to other valuations in the same collection district. And all appeals to the assessors as aforesaid shall be made in writing, and shall specify the particular cause, matter or thing respecting which a decision is requested, and shall, moreover, state the ground or principle of inequality or error complained of. And the assessor shall have power to re-examine and equalize the valuations as shall appear just and equitable; but no valuation shall be increased without a previous notice of at least five days, to the party interested, to appear and object to the same, if he judge proper, which notice shall be given by a note in writing, to be left at the dwelling-house of the party by such assessor or an assistant assessor.

SEC. 23. *And be it further enacted*, That whenever a State, territory or the District of Columbia shall contain more than one collection district, the assessor shall have power, on examination of the lists rendered by the assistant assessors, according to the provisions of this act, to revise, adjust and equalize the valuation of lands and lots of ground, with their improvements and dwelling-houses, between such collection districts, by deducting from or adding to either such a rate per centum as shall appear just and equitable.

SEC. 24. *And be it further enacted*, That the assessors shall, immediately after the expiration of the time for hearing and deciding appeals, make out correct lists of the valuation and enumeration in each collection district, and deliver the same to the board of assessors hereinafter constituted in and for the States respectively. And it shall be the duty of the assessors in each State to convene in general meeting at such time and place as shall be appointed and directed by the Secretary of the Treasury. And the said assessors, or a majority of them, so convened, shall constitute, and they are hereby constituted, a board of assessors for the pur-

poses of this act, and shall make and establish such rules and regulations as to them shall appear necessary for carrying such purposes into effect, not being inconsistent with this act or the laws of the United States.

SEC. 25. *And be it further enacted*, That the said board of assessors, convened and organized as aforesaid, shall and may appoint a suitable person or persons to be their clerk or clerks, but not more than one for each collection district, who shall hold his or their office or offices at the pleasure of said board of assessors, and whose duty it shall be to receive, record and preserve all tax lists, returns and other documents delivered and made to the said board of assessors, and who shall take an oath (or affirmation if conscientiously scrupulous of taking an oath) faithfully to discharge his or their trust; and in default of taking such oath or affirmation, previous to entering on the duties of such appointment, or on failure to perform any part of the duties enjoined on him or them respectively by this act, he or they shall respectively forfeit and pay the sum of two hundred dollars for the use of the United States, to be recovered in any court having competent jurisdiction, and shall also be removed from office.

SEC. 26. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of the said clerks to record the proceedings of the said board of assessors, and to enter on the record the names of such of the assessors as shall attend any general meeting of the board of assessors for the purposes of this act. And if any assessor shall fail to attend such general meeting, his absence shall be noted on the said record, and he shall, for every day he may be absent therefrom, forfeit and pay the sum of ten dollars for the use of the United States. And if any assessor shall fail or neglect to furnish the said board of assessors with the lists of valuation and enumeration of each assessment district within his collection district within three days after the time appointed as aforesaid for such general meeting of the said board of assessors, he shall forfeit and pay the sum of five hundred dollars for the use of the United States, and moreover shall forfeit his compensation as assessor. And it shall be the duty of the clerks of the said board of assessors to certify to the Secretary of the Treasury an extract of the minutes of the board, showing such failures or neglect, which shall be sufficient evidence of the forfeiture of such compensation to all intents and purposes: *Provided, always*, That it shall be in the power of the Secretary of the Treasury to exonerate such assessor or assessors from the forfeiture of the said compensation, in whole or in part, as to him shall appear just and equitable.

SEC. 27. *And be it further enacted*, That if the said board of assessors shall not, within three days after the first meeting thereof as aforesaid, be furnished with all the lists of valuation of the several counties and State districts of any State, they shall nevertheless proceed to make out the equalization and apportionment by this act directed, and they shall assign to such counties and State districts the valuation lists of which shall not have been furnished, such valuation as they shall deem just and right; and the valuation thus made to such counties and State districts by the board of assessors shall be final, and the proper quota of direct tax shall be and is hereby declared to be imposed thereon accordingly.

SEC. 28. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of the said board of assessors diligently and carefully to consider and examine the said lists of valuation, and they shall have power to revise, adjust and

equalize the valuation of property in any county or State district, by adding thereto, or deducting therefrom, such a rate per centum as shall, under the valuation of the several counties and State districts, be just and equitable: *Provided*, That the relative valuation of property in the same county shall not be changed, unless manifest error or imperfection shall appear in any of the lists of valuation, in which case the said board of assessors shall have power to correct the same, as to them shall appear just and right. And if, in consequence of any revisal, change and alteration of the said valuation, any inequality shall be produced in the apportionment of the said direct tax to the several States as aforesaid, it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to report the same to Congress, to the intent that provision may be made by law for rectifying such inequality.

SEC. 29. *And be it further enacted*, That as soon as the said board of assessors shall have completed the adjustment and equalization of the valuation aforesaid, they shall proceed to apportion to each county and State district its proper quota of direct tax. And the said board of assessors shall, within twenty days after the time appointed by the Secretary of the Treasury for their first meeting, complete the said apportionment, and shall record the same; they shall thereupon further deliver to each assessor a certificate of such apportionment, together with the several lists by the assessors respectively presented to the board as aforesaid, and transmit to the Secretary of the Treasury a certificate of the apportionment by them made as aforesaid; and the assessors, respectively, shall thereupon proceed to revise their respective lists, and alter and make the same in all respects conformable to the apportionment aforesaid by the said board of assessors; and the said assessors, respectively, shall make out lists containing the sums payable according to the provisions of this act upon every object of taxation in and for each collection district; which lists shall contain the name of each person residing within the said district, owning or having the care or superintendence of property lying within the said district which is liable to the said tax, when such person or persons are known, together with the sums payable by each; and where there is any property within any collection district liable to the payment of the said tax, not owned or occupied by or under the superintendence of any person resident therein, there shall be a separate list of such property, specifying the sum payable, and the names of the respective proprietors, where known. And the said assessors shall furnish to the collectors of the several collection districts, respectively, within thirty-five days after the apportionment is completed as aforesaid, a certified copy of such list or lists for their proper collection districts, and in default of performance of the duties enjoined on the board of assessors and assessors respectively, by this section, they shall severally and individually forfeit and pay the sum of five hundred dollars to the use of the United States, to be recovered in any court having competent jurisdiction. And it is hereby enacted and declared, that the valuation, assessment, equalization and apportionment made by the said board of assessors as aforesaid, shall be and remain in full force and operation for laying, levying and collecting, yearly and every year, the annual direct tax by this act laid and imposed, until altered, modified or abolished by law.

SEC. 30. *And be it further enacted*, That there shall be allowed and

paid to the several assessors and assistant assessors, for their services under this act—to each assessor two dollars per day for every day employed in making the necessary arrangements and giving the necessary instructions to the assistant assessors for the valuation, and three dollars per day for every day employed in hearing appeals, revising valuations, and making out lists agreeably to the provisions of this act, and one dollar for every hundred taxable persons contained in the tax list, as delivered by him to said board of assessors; to each assistant assessor two dollars for every day actually employed in collecting lists and making valuations, the number of days necessary for that purpose to be certified by the assessor and approved by the commissioner of taxes, and one dollar for every hundred taxable persons contained in the tax lists, as completed and delivered by him to the assessor; to each of the assessors constituting the board of assessors as aforesaid, for every day's actual attendance at said board, the sum of three dollars, and for travelling to and from the place designated by the Secretary of the Treasury ten cents for each mile, by the most direct and usual route; and to each of the clerks of said board two dollars for every day's actual attendance thereon. And the said board of assessors, and said assessors, respectively, shall be allowed their necessary and reasonable charges for stationery and blank books used in the execution of their duties; and the compensation herein specified shall be in full for all expenses not otherwise particularly authorized, and shall be paid at the Treasury, and such amount as shall be required for such payment is hereby appropriated.

SEC. 31. *And be it further enacted*, That each collector, on receiving a list as aforesaid, from the said assessors, respectively, shall subscribe three receipts; one of which shall be given on a full and correct copy of such list, which list shall be delivered by him to, and shall remain with, the assessor of his collection district, and shall be open to the inspection of any person who may apply to inspect the same; and the other two receipts shall be given on aggregate statements of the lists aforesaid, exhibiting the gross amount of taxes to be collected in each county or State district contained in the collection district, one of which aggregate statements and receipts shall be transmitted to the Secretary, and the other to the First Comptroller of the Treasury.

SEC. 32. *And be it further enacted*, That each collector, before receiving any list as aforesaid, for collection, shall give bond, with one or more good and sufficient sureties, to be approved by the Solicitor of the Treasury, in the amount of the taxes assessed in the collection district for which he has been or may be appointed; which bond shall be payable to the United States, with condition for the true and faithful discharge of the duties of his office according to law, and particularly for the due collection and payment of all moneys assessed upon such district, and the said bond shall be transmitted to the Solicitor of the Treasury, and, after approval by him, shall be deposited in the office of the First Comptroller of the Treasury: *Provided, always*, That nothing herein contained shall be deemed to annul or in any wise to impair the obligation of the bond heretofore given by any collector; but the same shall be and remain in full force and virtue, any thing in this act to the contrary thereof in any wise notwithstanding.

SEC. 33. *And be it further enacted*, That the annual amount of the taxes so assessed shall be and remain a lien upon all lands and other real

estate of the individuals who may be assessed for the same, during two years after the time it shall annually become due and payable; and the said lien shall extend to each and every part of all tracts or lots of land or dwelling-houses, notwithstanding the same may have been divided or alienated in part.

SEC. 34. *And be it further enacted*, That each collector shall be authorized to appoint, by an instrument of writing under his hand and seal, as many deputies as he may think proper, to be by him compensated for their services, and also to revoke the powers of any deputy, giving public notice thereof in that portion of the district assigned to such deputy; and each such deputy shall have the like authority, in every respect, to collect the direct tax so assessed within the portion of the district assigned to him which is by this act vested in the collector himself; but each collector shall, in every respect, be responsible both to the United States and to individuals, as the case may be, for all moneys collected, and for every act done as deputy collector by any of his deputies whilst acting as such: *Provided*, That nothing herein contained shall prevent any collector from collecting himself the whole or any part of the tax so assessed and payable in his district.

SEC. 35. *And be it further enacted*, That each of the said collectors shall, within ten days after receiving his collection list from the assessors, respectively as aforesaid, and annually, within ten days after he shall be so required by the Secretary of the Treasury, advertise in one newspaper printed in his collection district, if any there be, and by notifications to be posted up in at least four public places in his collection district, that the said tax has become due and payable, and state the times and places at which he or they will attend to receive the same, which shall be within twenty days after such notification; and with respect to persons who shall not attend according to such notifications, it shall be the duty of each collector, in person or by deputy, to apply once at their respective dwellings within such district, and there demand the taxes payable by such persons, which application shall be made within sixty days after the receipt of the collection lists as aforesaid, or after the receipt of the requisition of the Secretary of the Treasury as aforesaid, by the collectors; and if the said taxes shall not be then paid, or within twenty days thereafter, it shall be lawful for such collector, or his deputies, to proceed to collect the said taxes by distraint and sale of the goods, chattels or effects of the persons delinquent as aforesaid. And in case of such distraint, it shall be the duty of the officer charged with the collection to make, or cause to be made, an account of the goods or chattels which may be distrained, a copy of which, signed by the officer making such distraint, shall be left with the owner or possessor of such goods, chattels or effects, or at his or her dwelling, with some person of suitable age and discretion, with a note of the sum demanded, and the time and place of sale; and the said officer shall forthwith cause a notification to be publicly posted up at two of the taverns nearest to the residence of the person whose property shall be distrained, or at the court-house of the same county, if not more than ten miles distant, which notice shall specify the articles distrained, and the time and place for the sale thereof, which time shall not be less than ten days from the date of such notification, and the place proposed for sale not more than five miles distant from the place of making such distraint: *Provided*, That in any case of distraint for the payment of the tax afore-

said, the goods, chattels or effects so distrained shall and may be restored to the owner or possessor if, prior to the sale thereof, payment or tender thereof shall be made to the proper officer charged with the collection, of the full amount demanded, together with such fee for levying, and such sum for the necessary and reasonable expense of removing and keeping the goods, chattels or effects so distrained, as may be allowed in like cases by the laws or practice of the State wherein the distraint shall have been made; but in case of non-payment or tender as aforesaid, the said officers shall proceed to sell the said goods, chattels or effects at public auction, and shall and may retain from the proceeds of such sale the amount demandable for the use of the United States, with the necessary and reasonable expenses of distraint and sale, and a commission of five per centum thereon for his own use, rendering the overplus, if any there be, to the person whose goods, chattels or effects shall have been distrained: *Provided*, That it shall not be lawful to make distraint of the tools or implements of a trade or profession, beasts of the plough necessary for the cultivation of improved lands, arms, or household furniture, or apparel necessary for a family.

SEC. 36. *And be it further enacted*, That whenever goods, chattels or effects sufficient to satisfy any tax upon buildings, dwelling-houses or lands and their improvements, owned, occupied or superintended by persons known or residing within the same collection district, cannot be found, the collector having first advertised the same for thirty days, in a newspaper printed within the collection district, if such there be, and having posted up, in at least ten public places within the same, a notification of the intended sale, thirty days previous thereto, shall proceed to sell at public sale so much of the said property as may be necessary to satisfy the taxes due thereon, together with an addition of twenty per centum to the said taxes. But in all cases where the property liable to a direct tax under this act may not be divisible, so as to enable the collector by a sale of part thereof to raise the whole amount of the tax, with all costs, charges and commissions, the whole of such property shall be sold, and the surplus of the proceeds of the sale, after satisfying the tax, costs, charges and commissions, shall be paid to the owner of the property or his legal representatives; or if he or they cannot be found, or refuse to receive the same, then such surplus shall be deposited in the Treasury of the United States, to be there held for the use of the owner or his legal representatives, until he or they shall make application therefor to the Secretary of the Treasury, who, upon such application, shall, by warrant on the Treasury, cause the same to be paid to the applicant. And if the property advertised for sale as aforesaid cannot be sold for the amount of the tax due thereon, with the said additional twenty per centum thereto, the collector shall purchase the same in behalf of the United States for the amount aforesaid: *Provided*, That the owner or superintendent of the property aforesaid, after the same shall have been, as aforesaid, advertised for sale, and before it shall have been actually sold, shall be allowed to pay the amount of the tax thereon, with an addition of ten per centum on the same, on the payment of which the sale of the property shall not take place: *Provided, also*, That the owners, their heirs, executors or administrators, or any person on their behalf, shall have liberty to redeem the lands and other property sold as aforesaid, within two years from the time of sale, upon payment to the collector for the use of the

purchaser, with interest for the same, at the rate of twenty per centum per annum; and no deed shall be given in pursuance of such sale until the time of redemption shall have expired. And the collector shall render a distinct account of the charges incurred in offering and advertising for sale such property, and shall pay into the Treasury the surplus, if any there be, of the aforesaid addition of twenty per centum, or ten per centum, as the case may be, after defraying the charges. And in every case of the sale of real estate which shall be made under the authority of this act by the collectors, respectively, or their lawful deputies, respectively, the deeds for the estate so sold shall be prepared, made, executed and proved or acknowledged at the time or times prescribed in this act by the collectors, respectively, within whose collection district such real estate shall be situated, in such form of law as shall be authorized and required by the laws of the United States, or by the law of the State in which such real estate lies, for making, executing, proving and acknowledging deeds of bargain and sale or other conveyances for the transfer and conveyance of real estate; and for every deed so prepared, made, executed, proved and acknowledged, the purchaser or grantee shall pay to the collector the sum of two dollars, for the use of the collector or other person effecting the sale of the real estate thereby conveyed.

SEC. 37. *And be it further enacted*, That with respect to property lying within any collection district not owned or occupied, or superintended by some person residing in such collection district, and on which the tax shall not have been paid to the collector within ninety days after the day on which he shall have received the collection lists from the said assessors respectively as aforesaid, or the requisition of the Secretary of the Treasury as aforesaid, the collector shall transmit lists of the same to one of the collectors within the same State, to be designated for that purpose by the Secretary of the Treasury; and the collector who shall have been thus designated by the Secretary of the Treasury, shall transmit receipts for all the lists received as aforesaid, to the collector transmitting the same; and the collectors, thus designated in each State by the Secretary of the Treasury, shall cause notifications of the taxes due as aforesaid, and contained in the lists thus transmitted to them, to be published for sixty days in at least one of the newspapers published in the State; and the owners of the property, on which such taxes may be due, shall be permitted to pay to such collector the said tax, with an addition of ten per centum thereon: *Provided*, That such payment is made within one year after the day on which the collector of the district where such property lies had notified that the tax had become due on the same.

SEC. 38. *And be it further enacted*, That when any tax, as aforesaid, shall have remained unpaid for the term of one year as aforesaid, the collector in the State where the property lies, and who shall have been designated by the Secretary of the Treasury as aforesaid, having first advertised the same for sixty days in at least one newspaper in the State, shall proceed to sell, at public sale, so much of the said property as may be necessary to satisfy the taxes due thereon, together with an addition of twenty per centum thereon; or if such property is not divisible as aforesaid, the whole thereof shall be sold, and accounted for in the manner hereinbefore provided. If the property advertised for sale cannot be sold for the amount of the tax due thereon, with the said addition thereon, the collector shall purchase the same in behalf of the United States for such

amount and addition. And the collector shall render a distinct account of the charges incurred in offering and advertising for sale such property, and pay into the Treasury the surplus, if any, of the aforesaid addition of ten or twenty per centum, as the case may be, after defraying the said charges.

SEC. 39. *And be it further enacted*, That the collectors designated as aforesaid by the Secretary of the Treasury shall deposit with the clerks of the District Court of the United States in the respective States, and within which district the property lies, correct lists of the tracts of land or other real property sold by virtue of this act for non-payment of taxes, together with the names of owners or presumed owners, and of the purchasers of the same at the public sales aforesaid, and of the amount paid by said purchasers for the same; the owners, their heirs, executors or administrators, or any person in their behalf, shall have liberty to redeem the lands or other property sold as aforesaid, within two years from the time of sale, upon payment to the clerk aforesaid, for the use of the purchaser, his heirs or assigns, of the amount paid by such purchaser for the said land, or other real property, with interest for the same at the rate of twenty per centum per annum, and of a commission of five per centum on such payment for the use of the clerk aforesaid. The clerks shall, on application, pay to the purchasers the moneys thus paid for their use; and the collectors, respectively, shall give deeds for the lands or property aforesaid to the purchasers entitled to the same, in all cases where the same shall not have been redeemed within two years as aforesaid, by the original owners thereof, or their legal representatives, or any person in their behalf, and deposit such deeds with such clerk. And the said clerk shall be entitled to receive from the purchaser, for his own use, the sum of one dollar, in addition to the sum hereinbefore made payable to the collector, for every such deed, to be paid on the delivery thereof to such purchasers. And in all cases where lands may be sold under this act for the payment of taxes, belonging to infants, persons of insane mind, married women or persons beyond sea, such persons shall have the term of two years after their respective disabilities shall have been removed, or their return to the United States, to redeem lands thus sold, on their paying into the clerk's office aforesaid the amount paid by the purchaser, with fifty per centum addition thereto, together with ten per centum interest per annum on the aggregate sum, and on their payment to the purchaser of the land aforesaid a compensation for all improvements he may have made on the premises, subsequent to his purchase, the value of which improvements to be ascertained by three or more neighboring freeholders, to be appointed by the clerk aforesaid, who, on actual view of the premises, shall assess the value of such improvements, on their oaths, and make a return of such valuation to the clerk immediately. And the clerk of the court shall receive such compensation for his services herein, to be paid by and received from the parties, like costs of suit, as the judge of the district court shall, in that respect, tax and allow.

SEC. 40. *And be it further enacted*, That the several collectors shall, at the expiration of every month after they shall respectively commence their collections in the next and every ensuing year, transmit to the Secretary of the Treasury a statement of the collections made by them, respectively, within the month, and pay over quarterly, or sooner, if

required by the Secretary of the Treasury, the moneys by them respectively collected within the said term; and each of the said collectors shall complete the collection of all sums annually assigned to him for collection as aforesaid, shall pay over the same into the Treasury, and shall render his final account to the Treasury Department within six months from and after the day when he shall have received the collection lists from the said board of assessors or the said requisition of the Secretary of the Treasury, as aforesaid: *Provided, however*, That the period of one year and three months from the said annual day shall be annually allowed to the collector designated in each State as aforesaid, by the Secretary of the Treasury with respect to the taxes contained in the list transmitted to him by the other collectors as aforesaid.

SEC. 41. *And be it further enacted*, That each collector shall be charged with the whole amount of taxes by him receipted, whether contained in the lists delivered to him by the principal assessors, respectively, or transmitted to him by other collectors; and shall be allowed credit for the amount of taxes contained in the lists transmitted in the manner above provided to other collectors, and by them receipted as aforesaid; and also for the taxes of such persons as may have absconded, or become insolvent, subsequent to the date of the assessment, and prior to the day when the tax ought, according to the provisions of this act, to have been collected: *Provided*, That it shall be proved to the satisfaction of the First Comptroller of the Treasury that due diligence was used by the collector, and that no property was left from which the tax could have been recovered; and each collector, designated in each State as aforesaid, by the Secretary of the Treasury, shall receive credit for the taxes due for all tracts of land which, after being offered by him for sale in manner aforesaid, shall or may have been purchased by him in behalf of the United States.

SEC. 42. *And be it further enacted*, That if any collector shall fail either to collect or to render his account, or to pay over in the manner or within the times hereinbefore provided, it shall be the duty of the First Comptroller of the Treasury, and he is hereby authorized and required immediately after such delinquency to report the same to the Solicitor of the Treasury, who shall issue a warrant of distress against such delinquent collector and his sureties, directed to the marshal of the district, therein expressing the amount of the taxes with which the said collector is chargeable, and the sums, if any, which have been paid. And the said marshal shall, himself, or by his deputy, immediately proceed to levy and collect the sum which may remain due, by distress and sale of the goods and chattels, or any personal effects of the delinquent collector; and for want of goods, chattels or effects aforesaid, sufficient to satisfy the said warrant, the same may be levied on the person of the collector, who may be committed to prison, there to remain until discharged in due course of law; and furthermore, notwithstanding the commitment of the collector to prison as aforesaid, or if he abscond, and goods, chattels and effects cannot be found sufficient to satisfy the said warrant, the said marshal or his deputy shall and may proceed to levy and collect the sum which remains due, by distress and sale of the goods and chattels, or any personal effects of the surety or sureties of the delinquent collector. And the amount of the sums due from any collector as aforesaid, shall, and the same are hereby declared to be a lien upon the

lands and real estate of such collector and his sureties, until the same shall be discharged according to law. And for want of goods and chattels or other personal effects of such collector or his sureties, sufficient to satisfy any warrant of distress, issued pursuant to the preceding section of this act, the lands and real estate of such collector and his sureties, or so much thereof as may be necessary for satisfying the said warrant, after being advertised for at least three weeks in not less than three public places in the collection district, and in one newspaper printed in the county or district, if any there be, prior to the proposed time of sale, may and shall be sold by the marshal or his deputy; and for all lands and real estate sold in pursuance of the authority aforesaid, the conveyances of the marshals or their deputies, executed in due form of law, shall give a valid title against all persons claiming under delinquent collectors or their sureties aforesaid. And all moneys that may remain of the proceeds of such sale, after satisfying the said warrant of distress, and paying the reasonable costs and charges of sale, shall be returned to the proprietor of the lands or real estate sold as aforesaid.

SEC. 43. *And be it further enacted*, That each and every collector, or his deputy, who shall exercise or be guilty of any extortion or oppression, under color of this act, or shall demand other or greater sums than shall be authorized by this act, shall be liable to pay a sum not exceeding two thousand dollars, to be recovered by and for the use of the party injured, with costs of suit, in any court having competent jurisdiction; and each and every collector, or his deputies, shall give receipts for all sums by them collected and retained in pursuance of this act.

SEC. 44. *And be it further enacted*, That separate accounts shall be kept at the Treasury of all moneys received from the direct tax, and from the internal duties or income tax, in each of the respective States, territories and District of Columbia and collection districts; and that separate accounts shall be kept of the amount of each species of duty that shall accrue, with the moneys paid to the collectors, assessors and assistant assessors, and to the other officers employed in each of the respective States, territories and collection districts, which accounts it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury, annually, in the month of December, to lay before Congress.

SEC. 45. *And be it further enacted*, That the assessors, respectively, shall, yearly, and in every year after the expiration of one year from the second Tuesday of February next, inquire and ascertain, in the manner by the seventh section of this act provided, what transfers and changes of property in lands, lots of ground, buildings and dwelling-houses have been made and effected in their respective districts, subsequent to the next preceding valuation, assessment and apportionment of the direct tax by this act laid; and within twenty days thereafter they shall make out three lists of such transfers and changes, and transmit one list to the Secretary of the Treasury, another list to the Commissioner of Taxes, and the third shall be delivered to the collector of the collection district. And it shall yearly, and every year, after the said year one thousand eight hundred and sixty-two, be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to notify the collectors of the several collection districts the day on which it shall be the duty of the said collectors to commence laying and collecting the annual direct tax by this act laid and imposed, according to the assessment of the tax lists to them delivered by the said assessors as

aforesaid, subject only to such alterations therein as shall be just and proper, in the opinion of the Secretary of the Treasury, to conform to the transfers and changes aforesaid, ascertained by the assessors as aforesaid; and the said collectors shall, annually, in all respects, proceed in and conclude the collection of the said direct tax in the same manner and within the time hereinbefore provided and prescribed.

SEC. 46. *And be it further enacted*, That in case any State, territory or the District of Columbia, after notice given of its intention to assume and pay, or to levy, collect and pay said direct tax herein provided for and apportioned to said State, territory or district, shall, in any year after the taking effect of this act, fail to pay the amount of said direct tax, or any part thereof, as provided in this act, in such cases it shall be lawful for the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States to appoint United States assessors, assistant assessors and collectors, as in this act provided, whose duty it shall be to proceed forthwith, under such regulations as the said Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe, to collect all or any part of said direct tax the same as though said State, territory or district had not given notice, nor assumed to levy, collect and pay said taxes, or any part thereof.

SEC. 47. *And be it further enacted*, That any person who shall be convicted of wilfully taking a false oath or affirmation, in any of the cases in which an oath or affirmation is required to be taken by this act, shall be liable to the pains and penalties to which persons are liable for wilful and corrupt perjury, and shall, moreover, forfeit the sum of five hundred dollars.

SEC. 48. *And be it further enacted*, That there shall be allowed to the collectors appointed under this act, in full compensation for their services and that of their deputies in carrying this act into effect, a commission of four per centum upon the first hundred thousand dollars, one per centum upon the second one hundred thousand dollars, and one-half of one per centum upon all sums above two hundred thousand dollars; such commissions to be computed upon the amounts by them respectively paid over and accounted for under the instructions of the Treasury Department: *Provided*, That in no case shall such commissions exceed the sum of eight thousand dollars for a principal officer and two thousand dollars for an assistant. And there shall be further allowed to each collector their necessary and reasonable charges for stationery and blank books used in the performance of their official duties, which, after being duly examined and certified by the Commissioner of Taxes, shall be paid out of the Treasury.

SEC. 49. *And be it further enacted*, That, from and after the first day of January next, there shall be levied, collected and paid upon the annual income of every person residing in the United States, whether such income is derived from any kind of property, or from any profession, trade, employment or vocation carried on in the United States or elsewhere, or from any other source whatever, if such annual income exceeds the sum of eight hundred dollars, a tax of three per centum on the amount of such excess of such income above eight hundred dollars: *Provided*, That upon such portion of said income as shall be derived from interest upon treasury notes or other securities of the United States, there shall be levied, collected and paid a tax of one and one-half per centum. Upon the income, rents or dividends accruing upon any property, securities or stocks owned

in the United States by any citizen of the United States residing abroad, there shall be levied, collected and paid a tax of five per centum, excepting that portion of said income derived from interest on treasury notes and other securities of the government of the United States, which shall pay one and one-half per centum. The tax herein provided shall be assessed upon the annual income of the persons herein named for the year next preceding the time for assessing said tax, to wit, the year next preceding the first of January, eighteen hundred and sixty-two; and the said taxes, when so assessed and made public, shall become a lien on the property or other sources of said income for the amount of the same, with the interest and other expenses of collection until paid: *Provided*, That, in estimating said income, all national, State or local taxes assessed upon the property from which the income is derived shall be first deducted.

SEC. 50. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of the President of the United States, and he is hereby authorized, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to appoint one principal assessor and one principal collector in each of the States and territories of the United States and in the District of Columbia, to assess and collect the internal duties or income tax imposed by this act, with authority in each of said officers to appoint so many assistants as the public service may require, to be approved by the Secretary of the Treasury; the said taxes to be assessed and collected under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe. The said collectors herein authorized to be appointed shall give bonds, to the satisfaction of the Secretary of the Treasury, in such sums as he may prescribe, for the faithful performance of their respective duties. And the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe such reasonable compensation for the assessment and collection of said internal duties or income tax as may appear to him just and proper; not, however, to exceed in any case the sum of two thousand five hundred dollars per annum for the principal officers herein referred to, and twelve hundred dollars per annum for an assistant. The assistant collectors herein provided shall give bonds, to the satisfaction of the principal collector, for the faithful performance of their duties. The Secretary of the Treasury is further authorized to select and appoint one or more depositaries in each State, for the deposit and safe-keeping of the moneys arising from the taxes herein imposed when collected, and the receipt of the proper officer of such depositary to the collector, for the moneys deposited by him, shall be the proper voucher for such collector in the settlement of his account at the Treasury Department. And he is further authorized and empowered to make such officer or depositary the disbursing agent of the Treasury, for the payment of all interest due to the citizens of such State upon the Treasury notes or other government securities issued by authority of law. And he shall also prescribe the forms of returns to be made to the department by all assessors and collectors appointed under the authority of this act. He shall also prescribe the form of oath or obligation to be taken by the several officers authorized or directed to be appointed and commissioned by the President under this act, before a competent magistrate, duly authorized to administer oaths, and the form of the return to be made thereon to the Treasury Department.

SEC. 51. *And be it further enacted*, That the tax herein imposed by the forty-ninth section of this act shall be due and payable on or before the thirtieth day of June, in the year eighteen hundred and sixty-two, and

all sums due and unpaid at that day shall draw interest thereafter at the rate of six per centum per annum; and if any person or persons shall neglect or refuse to pay, after due notice, said tax assessed against him, her or them, for the space of more than thirty days after the same is due and payable, it shall be lawful for any collector or assistant collector, charged with the duty of collecting such tax, and they are hereby authorized to levy the same on the visible property of any such person, or so much thereof as may be sufficient to pay such tax, with the interest due thereon, and the expenses incident to such levy and sale, first giving thirty days' public notice of the time and place of the sale thereof; and in case of the failure of any person or persons, authorized to act as agent or agents for the collection of the rents or other income of any person residing abroad, shall neglect or refuse to pay the tax assessed thereon, (having had due notice,) for more than thirty days after the thirtieth of June, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, the collector or his assistant, for the district where such property is located, or rents or income is payable, shall be and hereby is authorized to levy upon the property itself, and to sell the same, or so much thereof as may be necessary to pay the tax assessed, together with the interest and expenses incident to such levy and sale, first giving thirty days' public notice of the time and place of sale. And in all cases of the sale of property herein authorized, the conveyance by the officer authorized to make the sale, duly executed, shall give a valid title to the purchaser, whether the property sold be real or personal. And the several collectors and assistants appointed under the authority of this act may, if they find no property to satisfy the taxes assessed upon any person by authority of the forty-ninth section of this act, and which such person neglects to pay as hereinbefore provided, shall have power, and it shall be their duty to examine under oath the person assessed under this act, or any other person, and may sell at public auction, after ten days' notice, any stocks, bonds or choses in action belonging to said person, or so much thereof as will pay such tax and the expenses of such sale; and in case he refuses to testify, the said several collectors and assistants shall have power to arrest such person and commit him to prison, to be held in custody until the same shall be paid, with interest thereon, at the rate of six per centum per annum, from the time when the same was payable as aforesaid, and all fees and charges of such commitment and custody. And the place of custody shall in all cases be the same provided by law for the custody of persons committed for any cause by the authority of the United States; and the warrant of the collector, stating the cause of commitment, shall be sufficient authority to the proper officer for receiving and keeping such person in custody until the amount of said tax and interest, and all fees and the expense of such custody, shall have been fully paid and discharged, which fees and expenses shall be the same as are chargeable under the laws of the United States in other cases of commitment and custody. And it shall be the duty of such collector to pay the expenses of such custody, and the same, with his fees, shall be allowed on settlement of his accounts. And the person so committed shall have the same right to be discharged from such custody as may be allowed by the laws of the State or territory, or the District of Columbia, where he is so held in custody, to persons committed under the laws of such State or territory, or District of Columbia, for the non-payment of taxes, and in the manner provided by such laws;

or he may be discharged at any time by order of the Secretary of the Treasury.

SEC. 52. *And be it further enacted*, That, should any of the people of any of the States or territories of the United States, or the District of Columbia, be in actual rebellion against the authority of the government of the United States at the time this act goes into operation, so that the laws of the United States cannot be executed therein, it shall be the duty of the President, and he is hereby authorized to proceed to execute the provisions of this act, within the limits of such State or territory, or District of Columbia, so soon as the authority of the United States therein is re-established, and to collect the sums which would have been due from the persons residing or holding property or stocks therein, with the interest due, at the rate of six per centum per annum thereon, until paid, in the manner and under the regulations prescribed in the foregoing sections of this act.

SEC. 53. *And be it further enacted*, That any State or territory, and the District of Columbia, may lawfully assume, assess, collect and pay into the Treasury of the United States the direct tax, or its quota thereof, imposed by this act upon the State, territory or the District of Columbia, in its own way and manner, by and through its own officers, assessors and collectors; that it shall be lawful to use for this purpose the last or any subsequent valuation list or appraisal made by State or territorial authority for the purpose of State or territorial taxation therein, next preceding the date when this act takes effect, to make any laws or regulations for these purposes, to fix or change the compensation to officers, assessors and collectors; and any such State, territory or district, which shall give notice by the Governor, or other proper officer thereof, to the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, on or before the second Tuesday of February next, and in each succeeding year thereafter, of its intention to assume and pay, or to assess, collect and pay into the Treasury of the United States the direct tax imposed by this act, shall be entitled, in lieu of the compensation, pay per diem and per centage herein prescribed and allowed to assessors, assistant assessors and collectors of the United States, to a deduction of fifteen per centum on the quota of direct tax apportioned to such State, territory or the District of Columbia levied and collected by the said State, territory and District of Columbia through its said officers: *Provided, however*, That the deduction shall only be made to apply to such part or parts of the same as shall have been actually paid into the Treasury of the United States on or before the last day of June in the year to which such payment relates, and a deduction of ten per centum to such part or parts of the same as shall have been actually paid into the Treasury of the United States on or before the last day of September in the year to which such payment relates, such year being regarded as commencing on the first day of April: *And provided further*, That whenever notice of the intention to make such payment by the State or territory and the District of Columbia shall have been given to the Secretary of the Treasury, in accordance with the foregoing provisions, no assessors, assistant assessors or collectors, in any State, territory or district, so giving notice, shall be appointed, unless said State or territory shall be in default: *And provided, further*, That the amount of direct tax apportioned to any State, territory or District of Columbia shall be liable to be paid and satisfied, in whole or in part, by the

release of such State, territory or district, duly executed to the United States, of any liquidated and determined claim of such State, territory or district of equal amount against the United States: *Provided*, That, in case of such release, such State, territory or district shall be allowed the same abatement of the amount of such tax as would be allowed in case of the payment of the same in money.

SEC. 54. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of the collectors aforesaid in their respective districts, and they are hereby authorized to collect the duties imposed by this act, and to prosecute for the recovery of the same, and for the recovery of any sum or sums which may be forfeited by virtue of this act; and all fines, penalties and forfeitures which shall be incurred by force of this act, shall and may be sued for and recovered in the name of the United States, or of the collector within whose district any such fine, penalty or forfeiture shall have been incurred, by bill, plaint or information; one moiety thereof to the use of the United States, and the other moiety thereof to the use of such collector.

SEC. 55. *And be it further enacted*, That the amount of all debts due to the United States by any collector, under this act, whether secured by bond or otherwise, shall and are hereby declared to be a lien upon the lands and real estate of such collector, and of his sureties, if he shall have given bond, from the time when suit shall be instituted for recovering the same; and, for want of goods and chattels and other personal effects of such collector or his sureties to satisfy any judgment which shall or may be recovered against them, respectively, such lands and real estate may be sold at public auction, after being advertised for at least three weeks in not less than three public papers within the collection district, and in one newspaper printed in the county, if any there be, at least six weeks prior to the time of sale; and for all lands or real estate sold in pursuance of the authority aforesaid, the conveyances of the marshals or their deputies, executed in due form of law, shall give a valid title against all persons claiming under such collector or his sureties, respectively.

SEC. 56. *And be it further enacted*, That, for superintending the collection of the direct tax and internal duties or income tax laid by this act, an officer is hereby authorized in the Treasury Department, to be called "Commissioner of Taxes," who shall be charged, under the direction of the Secretary, with preparing all the forms necessary for the assessment and collection of the tax and duties aforesaid, with preparing, signing and distributing all such licenses as are required, and with the general superintendence of all the officers employed in assessing and collecting said tax and duties; said commissioner shall be appointed by the President, upon the nomination of the Secretary of the Treasury, and he shall receive an annual salary of three thousand dollars. The Secretary of the Treasury may assign the necessary clerks to the office of said commissioner, whose aggregate salaries shall not exceed six thousand dollars per annum, and the amount required to pay the salaries of said commissioner and clerks is hereby appropriated.

SEC. 57. *And be it further enacted*, That in case of the sickness or temporary disability of a collector to discharge such of his duties as cannot, under existing laws, be discharged by a deputy, they may be devolved by him upon a deputy; *Provided*, Information thereof be immediately communicated to the Secretary of the Treasury, and shall not be

disapproved by him: *And provided*, That the responsibility of the collector or his sureties to the United States shall not be thereby affected or impaired.

SEC. 58. *And be it further enacted*, That in case a collector shall die, resign or be removed, the deputy of such collector longest in service at the time immediately preceding, who shall have been longest employed by him, may and shall, until a successor shall be appointed, discharge all the duties of said collector, and for whose conduct, in case of the death of the collector, his estate shall be responsible to the United States.

Approved August 5, 1861.

AN ACT TO INCREASE THE CONSULAR REPRESENTATION OF THE UNITED STATES DURING THE PRESENT INSURRECTION.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That the President of the United States may, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, appoint consuls at any foreign ports where he shall deem it advisable for the purpose of preventing piracy, with such compensation, not exceeding fifteen hundred dollars per anuum, as he shall think proper, to hold their offices respectively during the pleasure of the President, and in every case such compensation to cease with the restoration of internal peace within the United States. And the President may, during the present insurrection, increase the compensation of any consuls in foreign ports, if he shall deem it necessary, so as not, however, to exceed the sum of fifteen hundred dollars in any case. But this power shall cease with the re-establishment of internal peace as aforesaid.

Approved August 2, 1861.

CIRCULAR TO COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS.

Treasury Department, August 7, 1861.

The act of Congress of August 5, 1861, entitled "An act to provide increased revenue from imports, to pay interest on the public debt, and for other purposes," so far as it relates to the duties on imports, goes into immediate effect, and I publish that portion of it for the information and government of officers of the customs and others concerned.

In executing the provision relating to drawback duties on the exportation of foreign imported merchandise, contained in the fifth section, collectors of the customs will, until otherwise instructed, be governed, in general, by the provisions of the collection act of March 2, 1799, in regard to drawbacks. The right of drawback will attach only to merchandise imported under the provisions of the said act of August 5, 1861, and exported in the original packages.

In allowing drawback of duties on the exportation of merchandise manufactured from imported raw material, as provided for by the fourth section, collectors will be governed by the regulations of the 27th of March last, relating to drawback on cordage. Adequate proof of the quantity, quality and value of raw material used in the manufacture, must, however, until otherwise directed, be submitted in each case for my decision as to the rate of drawback to be allowed. Full and detailed instructions will be prepared and issued as soon as practicable.

S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

REPORT ON THE SALT TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES,

FOR THE YEAR 1860.

By SAMUEL HOTALING, *of New-York.*

IN our report on Salt, for the year 1859, as set forth in the last annual publication of the Chamber of Commerce, the quantity of salt manufactured in the United States, in that year, was estimated at about 14,000,000 bushels. The quantity of salt manufactured in the United States during the year 1860 varies considerably from the quantity made the previous year; amounting to about three-quarters of a million of bushels deficiency. While some of our States have *increased* their production of salt, other States have *decreased* the manufacture of this article, viz.: the State of New-York produced, in the Onondaga Valley, 1,300,825 bushels of salt *less* in the year 1860 than was produced in the same district during the year 1859, and the production of 1859 was 138,947 bushels less than the production of salt in 1858. While, during the same time, the States of Michigan, California and Texas have considerably *increased* their production of salt during the same periods. We have found considerable difficulty in obtaining accurate information as to the amount of *salt* produced in the several States of our Union, so as to be able to give for public information, and satisfactorily to our own mind, reliable and accurate statistical facts pertaining to their salt production. We have, with a view to this object, applied to twelve of the salt-producing States for information upon this subject, and find, upon receipt of replies from *them*, that only *five* of the States require by law any report to be made of their own production of *salt*. It is certainly desirable that the legislative bodies of the salt producing States, and also the Territories, will not only imitate the State of Michigan in its efforts to encourage the production of this necessary *article*, but will also *require*, by *law*, an annual *report* to be made for public information, not only of *salt* but also of all *their mining, agricultural* and *mechanical* productions, with their *cash valuation*. Such information, made every year for public use, by each of the States and Territories of our Union, would be most valuable for all such citizens as desire statistical details. Ten years are too long a period for our citizens to wait for such very important and necessary statistical information from each division of the federal Union.

ESTIMATED QUANTITY OF SALT MANUFACTURED IN THE UNITED STATES IN THE YEAR 1860.

	Bushels.		*Bushels.*
Massachusetts,	325,000	Michigan,	40,000
New-York,	5,593,447	Texas,	50,000
Pennsylvania,	950,000	Florida,	70,000
Virginia,	3,650,000	California,	250,000
Kentucky,	290,000	Utah,	60,000
Ohio,	2,060,000		
Illinois,	60,000		13,388,447

The whole amount of salt inspected on the Onondaga Salt Springs Reservation, in the State of New-York, during the year 1860, was 5,593,447 bushels, being equal to 1,118,650 barrels of 280 lbs. each. Of this quan-

tity 1,462,565 bushels have been the product of the Solar Salt Vats, and 4,130,882 bushels, usually termed fine salt, has been made in kettles by boiling.

The manufacture of salt is conducted under an arrangement for supplies of *brine*, and for convenience of inspection and supervision, which provides for a division of the Reservation into four manufacturing districts, each being under the immediate control and regulation of an independent *suite* of *deputies*. The following table gives the quantities and description of salt inspected in each division:

District No. 1, or Syracuse.			
Fine salt,.....bush.		691,935	
Solar salt,.....		451,650	
Fine ground, for table,.....		4,444	
			1,148,029
District No. 2, or Salina.			
Fine salt,.....bush.		2,057,140	
Solar salt,.....		319,324	
Fine ground,.....		11,287	
Solar do.		256,857	
			2,644,608
District No. 3, or Liverpool.			
Fine salt,.....bush.		704,145	
Solar salt,.....		12,452	
			716,597
District No. 4, or Geddes.			
Fine salt,.....bush.		661,931	
Solar salt,.....		422,282	
			1,084,213
Total inspection as above, in bushels,.....			5,593,447

An experiment has been made the past summer for producing a superior quality of fine salt for table use, and also for dairy purposes, particularly butter-making, adopted partly from the English method, which has proved very successful and promises beneficial results. This salt is brought to a finer crystalization and a more thorough separation from the impurities of the brine in the kettles than by the common mode, and is afterwards dried by artificial heat, and passed through rollers and seives to bring it to a state of complete pulverization. It is subsequently "medicated" by a patented application, recently discovered, which finishes the process. Salt produced by this method has a clear, dazzling white appearance, is always pulverulent and retains scarce a trace of impurity. This description of salt, which has received the denomination of "Factory-Filled," is admirably adapted to the curing of butter, and will doubtless prove, upon trial, to be equal to the best brands of English salt, of which a very large proportion is sold in this country.

By a careful analysis, made by Professor Cook, of Burlington, N. J., (as follows,) it will be seen that this salt is fully equal to the Ashton salt of Liverpool, England:

ANALYSIS OF THE "FACTORY-FILLED" SALT MADE AT SYRACUSE, N. Y.

	Per Cent.		*Per Cent.*
Chloride of sodium, (salt,).....	97.600	Chloride of calcium,.....	000
Sulphate of lime, (combined,)...	1.124	Chloride of magnesium,.....	000
do. do. (free,).....	227	Water,.....	810
Sulphate of magnesia,.....	077		
Carbonate of lime,.....	162		100.000

ANALYSIS OF "ASHTON SALT," OF LIVERPOOL, ENGLAND.

	Per Cent.		*Per Cent.*
Chloride of sodium, (salt,).....	97.660	Chloride of magnesium,.....	059
Sulphate of lime, (combined,)...	1.381	Water,.....	900
Chloride of calcium,.....	000		
			100.000

Rutgers' College, January 11th, 1861. GEORGE H. COOK.

The legislature of the State of Michigan, in 1859, by law declared that there should be paid a bounty of 10 cents per bushel on salt manufactured from water obtained by boring in the State; consequently eight wells have been sunk upon the Saginaw and five at Grand Rapids, and a quality of water has been found, which for strength and purity is unsurpassed in the United States, and from which very rapid progress is now making in the manufacture of salt.

IMPORTS OF SALT INTO THE UNITED STATES FOR THE YEAR 1860.

FROM	*Bushels.*		*Value.*
Swedish West Indies,.....	16,734	....	$ 1,530
Danish West Indies,.....	10,818	....	672
Hamburg,.....	509	....	97
Bremen,.....	5,050	....	422
Dutch West Indies,.....	522,263	....	45,928
England,.....	10,335,256	....	1,143,602
Ireland,.....	29,935	....	2,950
Canada,.....	68,102	....	9,026
Other British North American Possessions,..	58,870	....	4,053
British West Indies,.....	1,705,510	....	136,410
British Guiana,.....	16,720	....	1,310
France on the Atlantic,.....	4,233	....	283
France on the Mediterranean,.....	54,240	....	2,713
French West Indies,.....	9,775	....	743
Spain on the Atlantic,.....	472,158	....	31,059
Spain on the Mediterranean,.....	1,360	....	125
Cuba,.....	8,560	....	475
Portugal,.....	25,520	....	2,006
Madeira,.....	676	....	42
Cape de Verde Islands,.....	9,752	....	879
Azores,.....	2,409	....	270
Two Sicilies,.....	444,085	....	15,409
San Domingo,.....	4,200	....	303
Mexico,.....	228,287	....	22,555
Sandwich Islands,.....	58,064	....	8,131
China,.....	1,150	....	147
Total United States,.....	14,094,227	....	$ 1,431,140

PRICES OF SALT AT THE SYRACUSE SALT WORKS IN 1860.

	Fine, bbls.		*Coarse, bbls.*
January,	$1 50	....	$1 60
February,	1 50	....	1 60
March,	1 40 to 1 50	....	$1 50 to 1 60
April,	1 50	....	1 60
May,	1 40 to 1 50	....	1 60
June,	1 40 to 1 50	....	1 60
July,	1 40 to 1 50	....	1 60
August,	1 35 to 1 40	....	1 50
September,	1 40 to 1 50	....	1 40 to 1 50
October,	1 40 to 1 50	....	1 40 to 1 50
November,	1 55	....	1 55
December,	1 75	....	1 75

In our last report, as given in the annual publication, pages 43 and 44, was given a minute and careful statement of the mode of manufacturing salt in the different States of our Union; the different localities at which it is manufactured, and the various salt works; the depth of the wells; the cost of manufacture; the prices of the various modes of transportation through the country; the quantity made at each place; and the toll imposed on both domestic and foreign salt passing through our canals, &c., which preclude the necessity of any recapitulation this year, as the rates of prices and the quantity made have not materially changed since that period.

TOTAL EXPORTS OF SALT FROM THE UNITED STATES DURING THE YEAR 1860.

Bushels, 475,445.—Value, $129,717.

It may be proper to remark in this connection, that there has been a gradual increase in the production of salt in those sections of the world having trade in that article with the United States since the year 1856, and a consequent reduction in the average rate of prices. The general supplies are now large, and gradually accumulating. The old tariff imposed by our government was 15 per cent. *ad valorem*. The present tariff fixes a specific duty on salt of 4 cents per bushel on *bulk salt*, and 6 cents per bushel on *sack salt*, which amounts to a considerable advance on the old rates; and even with this difference of tariff rates it is not likely that there will be any very serious check in the importations.

ANNUAL REPORT ON DRUGS FOR THE YEAR 1860.

By WOOD & NICHOLS.

AT the commencement of the year a political excitement threatened to destroy the business that usually begins with the Southern buyers. Improvement, however, soon after took place, and trade continued good through the remainder of the season. Considerable fluctuation marked the revival; speculations were rampant, and in many articles higher prices were reached than had been known before in our market. The advance in freights—which, particularly at China and the East Indies, had been sudden and great—short supplies and an easy money market favoring speculative operations, were among the causes which contributed to the result. The business of the spring was as satisfactory as could reasonably have been expected. Anticipations of an enlarged western trade were in a great measure realized. Although not large, it was considered more healthy and promising than it had been for several years. Closing with the near-by trade, the usual quiet that attends the summer months succeeded. The political troubles in Italy stimulated many articles of her produce, some of which became scarce in the market, and purchases for future delivery were made freely at advanced rates. East India goods continued to command high prices, in consequence of the advancing rates of freights enhancing cost and checking shipments. China goods also appreciated, owing to the hostilities on her border.

Early in the summer, uneasiness was created among houses doing an exclusively Southern business, by unfavorable accounts from that section; there was a growing conviction that her ability to pay had been weakened by speculation, and that in consequence of free purchases for several seasons, her wants would not be large; not only was the hope of selling her merchants during the approaching season abandoned, but embarrassment was threatened to those who had urged the trade beyond its requirements and overstocked her markets upon easy credit. The principal business of the fall season was done with the West. The trade of this section since 1857 has been circumscribed by the slow process of recuperation, made necessary by the troubles into which she was plunged by the revulsions of that year. By retrenchment and careful purchases she has been steadily advancing to that position which her resources and energy entitle her; our merchants have been fretted by the delay, and each successive crop has been relied upon for the final liquidation of her indebtedness. The opportunity to burst the bonds that held her in distrust and prejudice finally came; a harvest of unparalleled magnificence was vouchsafed to her, and almost simultaneously a deficiency in the European crops was announced; an impulse was given to trade such as had not been felt before for years, but the improvement was short-lived; the development of extraordinary elements of prosperity was suddenly checked by a panic. The stagnation which succeeded and continued through the year contrasted painfully with the bustle and activity at the opening of the season.

In estimating the extent of the drug business in our market, there are

obstacles which prevent an accurate exhibit of the whole amount of transactions; many drugs imported into other cities are sold here, and besides what is sold out of town, direct by importing and commission houses, a portion of their business is engrossed in the jobbing trade. The whole amount of the latter, for 1860, we find to be $9,185,000, a small increase over 1859.

Our jobbers do not confine themselves exclusively to the sale of drugs, and the above includes other business, such as paints, oils, fancy goods, &c. As the requirements of the toilet, of the nursery and many domestic wants growing out of a luxurious and progressing civilization, fall legitimately within the range of the pharmaceutical business, the jobbers are, to some extent, forced to deal in these articles. In the increase and development of the business, the combination of auxiliary trade is being gradually abandoned, and paints, oils, window glass, dye stuffs and fancy goods have grown to large and separate interests.

In the manufacture of chemicals we notice considerable growth, and abundant evidence is shown that this department is destined to reach a prominent position here. The principal articles manufactured are acids, sulph. ammonia, quinine, blue vitrol, preparations of soda, agricultural chemicals, photographic do., fine chemicals, &c. I nconsequence of the impurities in the foreign manufacture, our druggists are getting to distil their own oils, such as cloves, cummin, caraway, &c. Greater attention is being given to the purity and worth of drugs. The manufacture of pharmaceutical preparations is estimated at $100,000.

The following articles were scarce during the year, and consequently commanded higher prices: Cardamon seeds, vanilla beans, cummin seed, balsam copaiba and tolu, cubebs, senna, argols, saffron, assafœtida, nutgalls, Rochelle salts, cantharides, rhubarb and jalap. Tartaric and citric acids, to some extent, were controlled by speculative movements; cubebs held at extreme rates, and vanilla beans were almost entirely out of the market. A speculative movement advanced the price of liquorice paste to 34 cents; good brands were scarce. Owing to the Italian troubles al most all of the goods from that quarter have been in irregular supply at higher prices. Many of the essential oils appreciated under speculative prices. Owing to the reduced stock of Peruvian bark both in ours and the English markets, quinine has been in speculative demand throughout; at one time price was held at $1 80, afterwards receded to $1 25. Ginseng has been in good demand at higher prices. Calisaya bark, that was sold at 75 cents early in the year, afterwards brought $1 10; varnish gums of all kinds have improved materially. Gum arabic was in better demand towards the last, and Rio ipecac has been scarce.

Alcohol—Commenced the year at 62 cents, an extreme price created by a reduced stock of whiskey, with an export movement in breadstuffs. Receipts were large in February, and market receded to 48, with a moderate demand, and continued with slight fluctuations through March. A further decline commenced next month and continued until September, when it had reached 40 cents. The grain movement stimulated prices, and sales were made at 47. It gradually fell off at the close; during the last month was very irregular from 35 to 40; closing in good demand at 37 cents.

Ashes.—Pot have been in moderate demand throughout the year at

remarkably uniform prices, averaging but a fraction under $5 25. Last year's average price was $5 46. Pearl have been in fair demand, but receipts have been irregular and prices have, in consequence, fluctuated, averaging for the year $5 54. Last year it was $5 75.

STOCK OF ASHES JANUARY 1, 1861.

	Pot.		*Pearl.*		*Total.*
First sort,	346	....	167	....	513
Second sort,	85	....	6	....	91
Third sort,	16	....	1	....	17
Condemned,	7	....	..	....	7
Total,	454	....	174	....	628

RECEIPTS OF ASHES FROM JANUARY 1, 1857, TO DECEMBER 31, 1860.

	Pot.		*Pearl.*		*Total.*
1857, bbls.	17,590	....	6,603	....	24,193
1858, "	18,258	....	4,445	....	22,703
1859, "	19,741	....	4,960	....	24,701
1860, "	18,327	....	5,238	....	23,565

Beeswax commenced at 38, with a scarcity and fair demand; as supply increased price fell off to 34 cents, but afterwards recovered in consequence of smaller receipts. A good demand carried prices to 37 cents. Shipments had been large and stock had accumulated abroad, and as demand fell off, market again yielded, and continued at about 35 cents until the close, when, in consequence of the panic, was sold at 30 cents, with a fair demand at this rate; average price for the year, 35⅛ cents; for the previous year, 36 cents.

Bi-Carb. Soda has for the most part been depressed. A speculative movement, early in the season, embracing about 40,000 kegs, caught the market at $3 75 and carried it to $4 25; heavy arrivals afterwards weakened the market and price gave way. Early in the fall another movement resulted in carrying prices from $3 35 to $3 95, but market was again depressed by heavy importations and price fell off to $3 62½. During the last month it was dull, and nominal sales for cash were made at 2½ cents; average price for the year, 3¾ cents; previous year, 4⅛ cents.

IMPORTS OF CHEMICALS FOR THE YEARS 1859 AND 1860.

	1859.		1860.
Soda ash,	35,094 casks.	....	29,123 casks.
Value,	$922,519	....	$792,974
Sal soda,	32,213 casks.	....	22,303 casks.
Value,	$279,881	....	$160,229
Bi-carb. soda,	113,883 kegs.	....	126,712 kegs.
Value,	$480,204	....	$441,593

Camphor.—The reports of a short supply in the producing districts, and small stocks here and in London, induced a strong speculative feeling, which resulted in carrying the price up to 60 cents, but this inflated value was rapidly reduced by subsequent reports of better supply. The market rallied at 35 cents, and prices rose to 45 cents, where it remained for the most part until the close. Last sales were made at 40 cents; average price for the year, 42 cents.

Castor Oil.—The year opened with a dull market at $1 02½; supply ample and demand small. The advance in freights, at Calcutta, soon after stiffened the market; price advanced to $1 10 and was supported through the spring. As stock accumulated and demand subsided, price declined to $1. A movement was started at this point, and price was carried to $1 20, and was for a time sustained by a few operators who held the principal stock. The trade bought sparingly, and gradual concessions brought the price back to $1, at which it closed, except for small parcels; average price for the year, $1 08½; in 1859, $1 25.

Imports of castor oil from Calcutta into the United States for the year ending December 31, 1860, 7,176 cases, or 143,520 galls. In 1859, 8,846 cases, or 176,920 galls., showing a decrease in 1860 of 1,670 cases, or 33,400 galls. Besides the imports of oil, about 40,000 galls. have been crushed from Calcutta beans by one of our manufacturers. We estimate the year's supply, from all sources except the West, including stock in speculators' hands January 1, 1860, at 222,000 galls. Stock on hand January 1, 1861, Boston and New-York, East India, 3,500 cases; same time in 1860, 1,500 cases. The last crop of beans at the West was better than for two years previous.

Cream Tartar.—This article has been a favorite with speculators for the last two years. Commencing at 31 cents early in the year, it was carried to 38 cents under operations based upon a small stock and advance of price abroad. Increased shipments afterwards resulted in lower prices, and a gradual falling off succeeded until the close. The impression became general that the supply of this article would be greater in consequence of the extreme prices. Buyers held off and market yielded; sales were made at 30½ early in the autumn. Holders said the price was below the cost of importation, and a speculative movement left the market firm at 32½. During the last month some concession was made; average price for the year, 34 cents; in 1859, 29½ cents.

Indigo.—Market was but moderately supplied, particularly with East India descriptions, and prices were well sustained for all kinds; demand fair, and for very good grades large prices were obtained. Central American descriptions have been scarce.

ESTIMATED STOCK IN 1ST AND 2D HANDS JANUARY 1ST, 1861.

Manilla,	700 cases.	Guatemala,	120 ceroons.
Other East India,	140 chests.	Caraccas,	3 "
In 1860, Manilla,	400 cases.		

Imports from Calcutta, as follows:

	1859. *Chests.*		1860. *Chests.*
At Boston,	1,499	....	1,107
At New-York,	261	....	367
At Philadelphia,	102	....	167

Oils.—A gradual improvement in Linseed carried the price from 57 to 62½ cents in the spring; supply increased and price fell off to 57; demand continued fair, market recovered, and maintained a pretty firm tone for a while at 60 cents. In the summer, demand subsided and the market gradually declined. During the last month it was offered at 48 cents. Average price for the year, 58 cents; in 1859, 62 cents.

Opium.—A decline at the commencement of the year was intercepted by speculative purchases based upon the limited supply, and price improved from $5 75 to $6. As stock became still more reduced, price rapidly advanced to $7 50. As trade diminished, market yielded. As usual in the summer, jobbers demanded a concession in view of the receipt of a new crop early in the fall. About ten cases were sold at $5 50, but stock having been reduced to about thirty cases, market rallied, and price rose to $6; buyers continued to hold off and holders conceded. The first lot of the new crop arrived early in September, but not coming in as freely as was expected, after reaching $5 25, an improved demand stimulated holders, and price was again carried to $6. As demand subsided, market fell, and last sales were made at $5 25. Average price for the year, $6 08; in 1859, $6 43.

Stock on hand in New-York January 1st, 1860,		65 cases.
Imports to December 31st, 1860,		797 "
		862 "
Stock in New-York January 1st, 1861,	122	122 "
Taken for consumption,		740 "
Stock in Boston January 1st, 1861,	60 cases.	
	182 "	

Amount and value of opium imported from June 1st, 1859, to June 1st, 1860:

From Turkish Ports.

555 cases.	.....	84,516 lbs.	.....	$435,520

From English Ports.

92 cases.	.....	12,962 lbs.	.....	$68,396

Saltpetre.—In consequence of advices from Calcutta reporting a contemplated increase of the export duty on this article, a speculative movement was started, and prices advanced from 8½ early in the year, and, with a market almost bare of good qualities, was carried to 10 @ 10½ cents. The rapid advance in freights at Calcutta, and consequent prospective short supply, induced manufacturers to buy freely both on the spot and to arrive. Appreciation followed, and although shipments improved, prices were well sustained by the unusually limited supply and the greatly enhanced cost to import. Good qualities became scarce, and several lots were brought out from England which sold at 11 @ 11¼; some choice lots on the spot brought 11½. In view of larger receipts in the autumn, holders to arrive evinced some anxiety to sell, and some concessions being made, manufacturers again came forward and took all the lots afloat for this market from Calcutta, England and Hamburg, at 10¾ @ 11 cents. Appreciation succeeded, and good parcels sold in a small way at 11½ @ 12 cents. As stock accumulated later in the season, with no buyers, depreciation followed, and the market closed nominally at 9½ @ 10 cents.

	Bags.
Stock on hand January 1st, 1860,.....	8,670

ARRIVALS FROM JANUARY 1ST, 1860, TO JANUARY 1ST, 1861.

	Boston.	*New-York.*	*Philadelphia.*		
From Calcutta,.....	61,761 ..	17,166 ..	6,094 ..	85,021	
From England,.....	1,907 ..	2,232 ..	800 ..	4,939	
From Hamburg,.....	.... ..	677 ..	.... ..	677	
From Bombay,.....	.... ..	425 ..	.... ..	425	
					91,062
					99,732
Export,.....					762
					98,970
	Boston.	*New-York.*	*Philadelphia.*		
Stock on hand January 1st, 1861,....	10,970 ..	3,481 ..	1,800 ..		16,251
Taken for consumption in 1860,.....					82,719
" " 1859,.....					104,044
Stock afloat for Boston,.....				25,304	
Loading November 8, for Boston,.....				1,755	
					27,059
Afloat for New-York,.....				3,106	
Loading for New-York,.....				1,818	
					4,924
Afloat for Philadelphia,.....					3,861
Total afloat and loading for the United States,.....					35,844

RANGE OF PRICES.

	1859.	1860.		1859.	1860.
January,....	7⅛ @ 8⅛	8⅛ @ 8⅜	July,.....	10⅛ @ 8⅜	11 @ 11⅛
February,...	7⅛ @ 8⅛	9 @ 9⅛	August,.....	7⅛ @ 7⅜	11 @ 11⅛
March,.....	8⅛ @ 8⅛	9⅛ @ 10	September,..	7⅛ @ 8⅛	10⅜ @ 11
April,.....	8⅛ @ 8⅜	10⅛ @ 11	October,....	7⅛ @ 8⅜	11 @ 11⅛
May,.....	10⅛ @ 11⅛	10⅛ @ 10⅜	November,..	8 @ 8⅛	10⅜ @ 11
June,.....	10⅛ @ 11⅛	10⅜ @ 11	December,..	8⅛ @ 8⅜	10 @ 10⅛

Average price, 1859,.....	9 c.
" " 1860,.....	10⅛ c.

COMPARATIVE IMPORTS.

From January 1, 1859, to January 1, 1860,.....	103,594
From January 1, 1860, to January 1, 1861,.....	91,062
Showing a falling off in 1860 of.....	12,532

STATEMENT OF DRUGS IMPORTED FROM ALL CHINA FOR THE LAST TEN YEARS.

YEAR ENDING JULY 1.	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
Camphor,....piculs,	781	904	858	1,491	1,140	562	750	..	..	..
Cassia Lignea, "	..*	..*	9,608	11,415	2,770	5,050	4,195	7,072	1,172	10,829
" buds,..boxes,	110	78	282	525	10	294	..	115	185	192
" oil,....cases,	188	143	116	225	47	117	..	21	209	151
Anise oil,..... "	150	348	254	113	36	207	214	124	360	150
Rhubarb,....piculs,	..	..	220	368	82	587	93	746	589	479
Vermilion,...boxes,	..*	..*	150	310	125	230	65	161	150	284
Star aniseed,.. "	..*	..*	..*	..*	..*	15	..	200	71	46

* Not collated.

IMPORTATIONS OF DRUGS AT THE PORT OF NEW-YORK DURING THE YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31, 1860.

Acids,	$285,507	Lac dye,	$31,610
Argols,	54,967	Liquorice root,	67,567
Alum,	35,168	" paste,	488,780
Alum cake,	6,214	Madder,	1,839,054
Ammonia,	31,791	Magnesia,	27,497
Antim. regulus,	48,005	Manna,	3,751
Arsenic,	3,977	Nitrate soda,	14,662
Arrow root,	7,717	Nutgalls,	2,402
Annatto,	2,055	Oils, essential,	81,244
Barytes,	27,677	Oil, cod liver,	18,812
Bi. carb. soda,	441,593	" linseed,	291,973
Bleaching powder,	235,217	" olive,	263,245
Borax,	27,762	" palm,	65,893
Brimstone,	130,257	" divers,	105,651
Castor oil,	40,041	Opium,	439,682
Chicory,	359,032	Peruvian bark,	211,008
Cochineal,	142,948	Phosphorus,	27,052
Cream tartar,	298,093	Paints,	826,505
Cudbear,	34,959	Paris white,	2,163
Crude gum,	76,670	Prussiate potash,	20,852
Cutch,	48,874	Quicksilver,	28,319
Cantharides,	701	Quinine,	1,496
Carmine,	3,103	Rhubarb,	19,395
Chalk,	18,478	Saltpetre,	257,460
Chloride lime,	8,023	Sal soda,	160,229
Flor. sulphur,	6,797	Shellac,	54,843
Gambier,	122,218	Soda ash,	792,974
Gum arabic,	88,234	Sumac,	30,150
" copal,	20,525	Sponges,	62,644
" copaiva,	92,806	Sugar lead,	70,614
Garacine,	2,157	Sarsaparilla,	67,462
Glue,	18,645	Sal ammoniac,	23,309
Gypsum,	7,683	Tonqua beans,	3,026
Iodide potassium,	61,202	Vanilla beans,	10,334
Extract safflower,	5,819	Vermilion,	48,984
" Lima wood,	12,971	Whiting,	5,768
Iodine,	12,781	Yellow ochre,	16,967
Ipecacuanha,	7,326	Divers,	239,661
Indigo,	505,923		
Jalap,	2,249	Totals,	$10,066,166
Leeches,	7,739		

EXPORTS OF DRUGS AND MEDICINES FROM THE SEVERAL PORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1860.—(*Official.*)

Ports.	*Amount.*	*Ports.*	*Amount.*
New-York,	$892,809	New-Bedford,	$2,018
Boston,	72,570	Oswegatchie,	1,935
San Francisco,	39,246	Vermont,	1,609
Champlain,	31,135	Niagara,	1,607
Philadelphia,	29,930	Genesee,	1,357
Passamaquoddy,	13,992		
Oswego,	9,853	Total 15 ports,	$1,113,649
Buffalo,	6,732	Total all other,	1,806
New-Orleans,	6,694		
Baltimore,	2,112	Total United States,	$1,115,455

BREADSTUFFS AND PROVISIONS.

Exhibit of the aggregate value of Breadstuffs exported to foreign countries from the United States, for each year, 1828, to 1st July, 1860; also the export value of Provisions for the same period.

	Export value of Breadstuffs.		*Export value of Provisions.*		*Aggregate of Breadstuffs and Prov.*
1828,.....	$ 5,414,665	....	$ 6,046,479	....	$ 11,461,444
1829,.....	7,149,355	....	5,982,503	....	13,131,858
1830,.....	7,071,767	....	5,003,663	....	12,075,430
1831,.....	11,908,910	....	5,629,317	....	17,538,227
1832,.....	6,142,472	....	6,282,231	....	12,424,703
1833,.....	7,009,556	....	7,199,572	....	14,209,128
1834,.....	5,677,341	....	5,846,683	....	11,524,024
1835,.....	6,111,164	....	5,988,235	....	12,009,399
1836,.....	4,799,141	....	5,814,989	....	10,614,130
1837,.....	4,416,643	....	5,171,716	....	9,588,359
1838,.....	4,944,826	....	4,691,824	....	9,636,650
1839,.....	8,436,246	....	5,711,533	....	14,147,779
1840,.....	13,535,926	....	5,531,609	....	19,067,535
1841,.....	10,254,377	....	6,941,725	....	17,196,102
1842,.....	9,878,176	....	7,024,700	....	16,902,876
1843,.....	5,249,600	....	5,954,523	....	11,204,123
1844,.....	8,931,396	....	9,038,739	....	17,970,135
1845,.....	7,445,820	....	9,297,601	....	16,743,421
1846,.....	16,625,407	....	11,075,714	....	27,701,121
1847,.....	53,262,437	....	15,439,484	....	68,701,921
1848,.....	22,678,602	....	14,794,149	....	37,472,751
1849,.....	22,895,783	....	15,259,724	....	38,155,507
1850,.....	13,066,509	....	12,984,864	....	26,051,373
1851,.....	14,556,236	....	7,392,415	....	21,948,651
1852,.....	17,256,803	....	8,600,224	....	25,857,027
1853,.....	21,875,878	....	11,109,444	....	32,985,322
1854,.....	48,383,107	....	17,558,216	....	65,941,323
1855,.....	21,557,854	....	17,337,494	....	38,895,348
1856,.....	56,619,986	....	20,567,315	....	77,187,301
1857,.....	55,624,832	....	19,043,020	....	74,667,852
1858,.....	33,698,490	....	16,984,795	....	50,683,285
1859,.....	24,893,413	....	13,412,578	....	38,305,991
1860,.....	27,590,298	....	17,681,552	....	45,271,850

The following tabular statement of exports for the year ending 1st September, 1860, is from the Flour and Grain Circular of Mr. EDWARD BILL, of New-York:

EXPORT OF BREADSTUFFS TO GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, FROM SEPTEMBER 1ST, 1859, TO SEPTEMBER 1, 1860.

FROM—	Bbls. Flour.	Bbls. Corn Meal.	Bushels Wheat.	Bushels Corn.
New-York, one year, to Sept. 1, 1860,	616,166	826	4,576,228	1,724,935
New-Orleans, " " " "	6,333	6	....	126,061
Philadelphia, " " " "	65,501	....	247,161	243,209
Baltimore, " " " "	2,277	112	106,403	126,602
Boston, " " " "	26,829	....	....	1,050
Other ports, " " " "	50	....	8,922	....

EXPORTS OF BREADSTUFFS TO GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.—(*Continued.*)

FROM—	Bbls. Flour.	Bbls. Corn Meal.	Bushels Wheat.	Bush. Corn.
Sept. 1, 1859, to Sept. 1, 1860,.....	717,156	944	4,938,714	2,221,857
Sept. 1, 1858, to Sept. 1, 1859,.....	106,457	58	439,010	342,013
Sept. 1, 1857, to Sept. 1, 1858,.....	1,295,430	143	6,555,643	3,317,802
Sept. 1, 1856, to Sept. 1, 1857,.....	849,600	685	7,479,401	4,746,278
Sept. 1, 1855, to Sept. 1, 1856,.....	1,641,265	6,816	7,956,406	6,731,161
Sept. 1, 1854, to Sept. 1, 1855,.....	175,209	4,768	324,427	6,679,138
Sept. 1, 1853, to Sept. 1, 1854,.....	1,846,920	41,726	6,038,003	6,049,371
Sept. 1, 1852, to Sept. 1, 1853,.....	1,600,449	100	4,823,519	1,425,278
Sept. 1, 1851, to Sept. 1, 1852,.....	1,427,442	1,680	2,728,442	1,487,398
Sept. 1, 1850, to Sept. 1, 1851,.....	1,559,584	5,620	1,496,355	2,205,601
Sept. 1, 1849, to Sept. 1, 1850,.....	574,757	6,411	461,276	4,753,358
Sept. 1, 1848, to Sept. 1, 1849,.....	1,137,556	82,900	1,140,194	12,685,260
Sept. 1, 1847, to Sept. 1, 1848,.....	182,583	108,534	241,309	4,390,226
Sept. 1, 1846, to Sept. 1, 1847,.....	3,155,845	844,187	4,000,359	17,157,659
Total for 14 years,.....	16,270,253	1,104,572	48,623,058	74,192,400
From New-York, 1st to 7th Sept., 1860,	16,295	....	179,159	30,484

To the Continent, from New-York and other Ports.	Barrels Flour.	Bushels Wheat.	Bushels Corn.	Bushels Rye.
Sept. 1, 1859, to Sept. 1, 1860,.....	49,243	178,031	19,358	....
Sept. 1, 1858, to Sept. 1, 1859,.....	51,388	57,845	25,519	....
Sept. 1, 1857, to Sept. 1, 1858,.....	303,100	390,428	16,848	13,100
Sept. 1, 1856, to Sept. 1, 1857,.....	483,344	2,875,653	543,590	216,162
Sept. 1, 1855, to Sept. 1, 1856,.....	748,408	2,610,079	282,083	1,975,178
Sept. 1, 1854, to Sept. 1, 1855,.....	7,763	4,972	308,428	35,569
Total for 6 years,.....	1,643,246	6,117,008	1,195,826	2,240,009

TOTAL FOREIGN EXPORT FOR THE YEAR, TO SEPTEMBER 1, 1860.

To—	Barrels Flour.	Barrels Corn Meal.	Bushels Wheat.	Bushels Corn.
Great Britain,.....	717,156	944	4,938,714	2,221,857
The Continent,.....	49,243	...	178,031	19,358
Total for the year,.....	766,399	944	5,116,745	2,241,215
From Sept. 1, 1860, *to Jan.* 1, 1861:—				
Great Britain,.....	1,058,673	2,474	11,928,139	2,509,901
The Continent,.....	27,511	...	248,773	17,340
Total, 4 months,.....	1,086,184	2,474	12,176,912	2,527,241
1 year, to Sept. 1,.....	766,399	944	5,116,745	2,241,215
Total, 16 months,.....	1,852,583	3,418	17,293,657	4,768,456

RATES OF FREIGHT, YEAR 1860.

RATES OF FREIGHT FROM NEW-YORK TO LIVERPOOL, FROM JANUARY TO DECEMBER, 1860, BOTH INCLUSIVE.

First week in	BACON. *Per ton. Sterling.*	PORK. *Per bbl. Sterling.*	ROSIN. *Per bbl. Sterling.*	COTTON. *Per lb. Sterling.*	BEEF. *Per tierce. Sterling.*
January,	£1 0s. 0d.	....	2s. 3d.	7-32d.	3s. 9d.
February,	1 0 0	....	2 6	7-32	3 6
March,	1 2 6	....	2 6	1-4	3 9
April,	1 0 0	3s. 0d.	2 3	1-4	3 6
May,	1 0 0	2 6	2 3	1-4	3 9
June,	....	....	2 0	1-8	4 0
July,	....	....	....	1-8	4 0
August,	....	....	....	3-16	....
September,	....	....	....	3-16	....
October,	....	....	....	7-32	....
November,	....	....	3 6	1-4	....
December,	1 17 6	4 6	3 6	9-32	7 6

First week in	SPERM OIL. *Per ton, 252 gls. Sterling.*	GRAIN. *Per bush. Sterling.*	FLOUR. *Per bbl. Sterling.*	LARD. *Per ton. Sterling.*	TAR. *Per bbl. Sterling.*	SPIRITS TURPENTINE. *Per bbl. Sterling.*
January,	£1 2s. 6d.	5d.	1s. 9d.	£1 0s. 0d.	2s. 3d.	5s. 0d.
February,	....	5½	....	1 2 6	....	4 6
March,	1 5 0	5½	2 3	1 5 0	....	5 3
April,	1 7 6	5½	....	1 3 0	....	....
May,	1 2 6	6	2 0	1 0 0	....	....
June,	1 5 0	8	....	....	2 9	7 0
July,	1 5 0	7½	1 9	....	....	....
August,	1 5 0	8	2 3	....	....	7 0
September,	....	10½	3 0	....	....	7 0
October,	1 15 0	12	3 3	....	....	....
November,	1 15 0	12	3 3	....	....	....
December,	....	13½	3 9	....	....	....

RATES OF FREIGHT FROM NEW-YORK TO LONDON, FROM JANUARY TO DECEMBER, 1860, BOTH INCLUSIVE.

First week in	FLOUR. *Per bbl. Sterling.*	OIL CAKE. *Per ton. Sterling.*	NAVAL STORES. (*Rosin and Turpentine.*) *Per bbl. of 280 lbs. Sterling.*	BACON. *Per ton. Sterling.*
January,	2s. 6d.	20s. @ 25s. 0d.	3s. 0d.	22s. 6d. @ 25s.
February,	2 6	25 0	3 0	20 0
March,	2 3	25 0	3 0	....
April,	2 0	20 0	2 6 @ 2 10	25 0
May,	2 3	20 0	2 6	22 6 @ 25
June,	2 1½	20 0	2 7½	25 0
July,	2 6	....	3 0	....
August,	2 9	25 @ 27 6	....	....
September,	3 6 @ 3 9	35 0	4 0	....
October,	4 0	35 0	3 9	....
November,	3 9	35 0	....	....
December,	3 9 @ 4 0	.....	....	....

RATES OF FREIGHT FROM NEW-YORK TO HAVRE, (ON FOUR LEADING ARTICLES,) FROM JANUARY TO DECEMBER, 1860, FOR THE FIRST WEEK IN THE MONTH, BOTH INCLUSIVE.

First week in	COTTON. *Per lb.*	ASHES. *Per ton. Pots and Pearl.*	RICE. *Per ton. Net weight.*	QUERCITRON. *Per ton.*
January, 1860,	⅜ ct.	$9 @ $11	$10	$10
February, "	⅜ "	9 @ 11	10	10
March, "	⅜ "	9 @ 11	10	10
April, "	½ "	8 @ 10	8	10
May, "	½ "	8 @ 10	8	10
June, "	½ "	8 @ 10	8	10
July, "	½ "	8 @ 10	8	10
August, "	½ "	8 @ 10	8	10
September, "	½ "	8 @ 10	8	10
October, "	⅝ "	10 @ 12	12	10
November, "	⅝ "	10 @ 12	12	10
December, "	1 "	10 @ 12	12	10

RATES OF FREIGHT FROM NEW-YORK TO GALVESTON, FROM JANUARY TO DECEMBER, 1860.

First week in	*Gen. Merchandise, per cubic foot.*	*First week in*	*Gen. Merchandise. per cubic foot.*
January,	7 cts.	July,	7 cts.
February,	7 "	August,	7 "
March,	7 "	September,	7 "
April,	7 "	October,	7 "
May,	7 "	November,	7 "
June,	7 "	December,	7 "

RATES OF FREIGHT FROM NEW-YORK TO HAVANA, FROM JANUARY TO DECEMBER, 1860, BOTH INCLUSIVE.

Machinery under deck,	$6 00 @	$8 00	per ton.
Hoop iron,	6 00 @	..	"
Paving stones,	1 50 @	3 00	"
Bricks,	10 00 @	14 00	per M.
Plaster or cement,	40 @	62½	per bbl.
Potatoes, apples, onions,	50 @	75	"
Ale,	62 @	87	"
Oil, (per bbl. of 32 gallons,)	62 @	75	"
Spirits of turpentine,	75 @	1 00	"
Carboys of acid on deck,	1 50 @	2 00	"
Hoops,	6 00 @	8 00	per M.
Sugar, molasses, shooks with heads,	25 @	37	"
Paper, straw,	2 @	3	per ream.
Measurement goods,	8 @	15	pr. cubic foot.

For the comparative rates of freight for the year 1859, see Chamber of Commerce Report, pp. 21–22.

RATES OF FREIGHT FROM NEW-YORK TO VERA CRUZ, FROM JANUARY TO DECEMBER, 1860, BOTH INCLUSIVE.

One uniform rate the year round.

Cocoa,	1 ct. per lb.
Machinery,	30 cts. per cubic foot.
Hardware,	30 " "
Straw-paper,	10 cts. per ream.
Cinnamon,	30 cts. per cubic foot.
Cloves,	30 " "

THE TEA TRADE FOR THE YEAR 1860.

GREEN teas opened at rather low rates, early in 1860, and ruled without change to the 15th February, 1860.

From that date ordinary and medium grades began to advance, the upward movement continuing to the first of September, at which time the rise in prices of common qualities *Hyson*, were equal to 30 per cent.; *Young Hyson*, *Hyson Skin* and *Twankay*, 50 per cent., and *Gunpowder* and *Imperial*, 25 per cent. upon the opening rates. Good and fine grades participated in the advance 10 to 15 per cent., while the choice varieties (of which the season's import contained an unusually large proportion) remained without material change. From September 1st to the end of the year (the last two months of which were marked by more than ordinary dullness in the tea trade) no material change in prices occurred, except a decline in the fine grades of 7 to 10 per cent.

Blacks opened at about the average rates of the last ten years, and prices continued without alteration to the 1st of March.

From that date to the 1st July the market for common and fair grades gradually improved, until an advance on the opening rates was realized of 15 to 20 per cent. on *Oolong*, *Ankoi* and *Orange Pecco*, 20 to 30 per cent. on *Souchong* and *Congou*, and 10 to 20 per cent. on the various kinds of *Powchongs*.

From July to the end of the year the tendency of prices was to a lower scale, the market finally closing at about the opening prices, except for *Souchong* and *Congou*, the common qualities of which were still quoted about 20 per cent. above.

STATISTICS OF THE TEA TRADE—IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FOR THE CALENDAR YEAR 1860.

	Greens. lbs.	*Blacks.* lbs.	*Japan.* lbs.	*Total.* lbs.
Estimated stock, January 1st, 1860,.....	1,689,520 ..	3,807,818 ..	.... ..	5,447,338
Receipts from January 1st to Dec. 31, 1860,....	17,023,920 ..	15,575,603 ..	865,806 ..	32,964,329
	18,668,440 ..	19,383,421 ..	865,806 ..	38,412,167
Estimated stock, December 31, 1860,.....	2,865,000 ..	5,834,582 ..	50,000 ..	8,249,832
Apparent consumption,.....	16,293,440 ..	13,548,539 ..	315,806 ..	30,162,335

EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC GOODS TO FOREIGN PORTS FROM NEW-YORK FOR ELEVEN YEARS.

Years.	*Pkgs.*	*Years.*	*Pkgs.*
1850,.....	24,412	1856,.....	27,656
1851,.....	41,820	1857,.....	25,972
1852,.....	60,496	1858,.....	47,796
1853,.....	40,468	1859,.....	51,848
1854,.....	17,784	1860,.....	54,461
1855,.....	12,834		

EXPORTS OF TEAS FROM THE SEVERAL PORTS OF THE UNITED STATES DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1860. (*Official.*)

Ports.	*Pounds.*		*Value.*
New-York,	2,008,241	....	$604,344
Niagara,	1,174,149	....	579 816
Boston,	676,640	....	208,750
Champlain,	497,912	....	183,474
Oswego,	258,749	....	126,141
San Francisco,	240,756	....	61.847
Passamaquoddy,	117,531	....	36,348
Buffalo,	116,414	....	73,245
Philadelphia,	56,884	....	26,855
Baltimore,	61,470	....	24,245
Richmond,	47,930	....	24,178
Oswegatchie,	68,967	....	20,710
Total 12 ports,	5,325,643	....	$1,969,953
Total all other,	39,821	....	13,840
Total United States,	5,365,464	....	$1,983,793

IMPORTS OF TEAS INTO THE SEVERAL PORTS OF THE UNITED STATES DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1860. (*Official.*)

Ports.	*Pounds.*		*Value.*
New-York,	28,387,743	....	$8,270,901
San Francisco,	1,850,362	....	345.810
Boston,	854,547	....	186,915
All other ports,	454	....	145
Total United States,	30,593,106	....	$8,803,771

OPERATIONS OF THE U. S. ASSAY OFFICE, NEW-YORK,

FOR THE YEAR 1860—1861.

	Bullion Deposits.		Silver Parted from Gold.		Bars.
	Gold.	*Silver.*	*For Depositors.*	*Office. For Assay.*	*Returned for Coins.*
1860. 1st quar.,	$3,816,775 86 ..	$93,473 99 ..	$29,652 99 ..	$155 82	$155,125 68
2d "	608,953 51 ..	114,878 17 ..	6,384 62 ..	85 51 ..	115,612 78
3d "	697,936 59 ..	111,338 90 ..	8,392 99 ..	45 10 ..	....
4th "	11,818,605 61 ..	216,471 84 ..	62,877 75 ..	89 39 ..	42,782 80
	*$16,942,271 57 ..	$536,162 90 ..	$107,308 35 ..	$325 82	$313,521 21
1861. 1st quar.,	*$17,882,426 72 ..	$452,118 14 ..	$70,275 05 ..	$322 29 ..	....

	Fine Gold Bars.	Fine Bars made by Melter and Refiner.		Bullion sent to the Mint for Coinage.	
	Paid Depositors.	*Gold.*	*Silver.*	*Gold.*	*Silver.*
1860. 1st quar.,	$696,085 31	$4,195,423 32	$32,602 27	$2,746,002 25	$68,569 09
2d "	437,209 54 ..	678,760 78 ..	67,504 24 ..	222,479 50 ..	77,694 38
3d "	519,755 38 ..	636,713 13 ..	37,854 35 ..	113,541 47 ..	29,945 50
4th "	318,871 44 ..	5,765,521 57 ..	115,781 02 ..	8,772,811 30 ..	101,987 64
	$1,971,921 67	$11,276,418 80	$253,741 88	$11,854,834 52	$278,196 61
1861. 1st quar.,	$169,093 65	$8,376,174 74	$50,317 62	$19,484,603 06	$496,829 85

* $15,150,000 of the above gold deposits, in foreign coins, such as Sovereigns, Napoleons, Thalers, &c.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

DUTIES LEVIED IN SCINDE.

From the monthly circular of Messrs. Farnham & Co., dated Kurrachee, May 8th, 1861, we learn that the duties now levied in Scinde (or Sind) are as follows:

New Import Duties.—Cotton thread, twist and yarn, piece goods, haberdashery, hosiery and millinery, oilman's stores, provisions of all kinds, perfumery, spices of all kinds, tea and coffee, jewelry, plated and plated ware, and all articles not enumerated below, pay 10 per cent.

Tobacco, eight annas per seer (2 lbs.) on unmanufactured, and one rupee per seer on manufactured. American tobacco comes under the head of manufactured.

Ale, beer, porter, cider and other similar fermented liquors, 4 annas; wines and liquors, rupees 2; and spirits, rupees 3—per imperial gallon.

Bullion and coin, pearls and precious stones, unset, grain of all kinds, horses and other live animals, ice, cotton, wool, flax, hemp, jute, machinery, chalk, coal, coke, bricks, maps, prints, works of art and hides, free.

New Export Duties.—Saltpetre two rupees per Indian maund (82 lbs.); indigo, three rupees per Indian maund; grain and pulse of all kinds, four annas per bag of 164 lbs.; lacdye and shellac, four per cent.

Bullion, precious stones and pearls, books, maps, prints and works of art, horses and other live animals, cotton, wool, flax, hemp, jute, sugar, rum and spirits, tobacco, raw silk, opium, under a permit, free.

All articles of export not enumerated above pay three per cent.

[Kurrachee, or Karachee, is the principal seaport town of Scinde, on an inlet of the Indian Ocean, eighteen miles from the west branch of the Indus. Latitude 23° 47′ 3″ N. The harbor is the only port along this coast for vessels drawing more than ten feet of water.]

American Imports—Drills.—We are without stock, and there are none on the way. We have constant inquiries for boot and Laconia marks—latter preferred. Shirtings, sheetings, blue drills, cotton flannel, &c., are in constant demand for small quantities.

Tobacco.—Just at present the market is rather quiet, 14 annas 6 pies to 15 annas per lb. for good quality half pound lumps, and 11 annas to 11 annas 6 pies for 10*s.* of good quality are fair quotations.

There is a great deal of inferior tobacco in the Bombay market. Some of this description of tobacco has found its way into this market, and we would suggest to the parties in America who contemplate trying the Kurrachee market that it will be for their interest to confine their shipments to the very best marks. Mould in tobacco is very detrimental.

THE COOLIE TRAFFIC.

The following letter from Paris purports to describe the views of the French government as to the results to be obtained from the clause of the treaty with China legalizing the exportation of labor. It is not known if the writer speaks from authority, and if his extremely sanguine anticipations and inferences are shared in official quarters:

"It will be seen by the late advices from China that this government, in their treaty with the Chinese, have legalized the exportation of coolies.

"This has been done, no doubt, in reference to obtaining a supply of labor for the cotton lands in Algeria.

"The great immorality of the Chinese adults heretofore imported has caused the subject to receive a careful and earnest attention, and a plan has been proposed to import boys and girls brought out under the care of priests and sisters of charity, who, on receiving them in China, will cleanse and clothe them, and begin immediately a religious and secular education.

"On arrival in Algeria and being distributed among the planters they will retain their teachers, and be ready with their little fingers to pick the cotton balls as they ripen. The cultivation of the land is to be effected with steam-ploughs and horse-hoes, as in this way an enormous area can be kept under culture at a small expense. The yield of cotton (as in the United States) being limited only by the number of pickers, cotton may be thus grown at half the cost of the American, owing to the difference in the value of land and slaves.

"In the year 1855 five bales of cotton were brought to Paris from Algeria, of the best quality, but the want of an organized system of labor similar to the slave system of the States caused the culture to be abandoned for a time. The great improvements in agricultural machinery have now removed this difficulty in part, and the importation of coolie children will supply all that is required to insure success at the present time.

"The children are to be apprenticed for twenty years, and to be always under supervision. When the picking season is finished, they are to be employed in raising their own food, and in weaving and making their clothing. At the end of their apprenticeship they can marry and become citizens, with an allotment of land, or return to China, as they please.

"Such, briefly, is the scheme, which will no doubt be adopted by England, and carried out in British Guiana and the other cotton lands in her extended colonies. That there is not a scarcity of cotton lands in the world, the application of the steam-plough with the coolie emigration will soon prove. Within five years France and England will raise at least half the cotton they use; prompted not only by the independence that this supply will give them, they will be urged on to the work by the great missionary enterprise which it will inaugurate.

"The organized labor of the rail-road system has rendered familiar the carrying out of great land operations with facility and rapidity, and four hundred children to a single ship will soon people the plantations when ready to receive them. I subjoin an article from the *Moniteur*, just published, which shows the enormous increase in the consumption of cotton in France in the past year, from which you will infer the solicitude of the government to engraft its cultivation upon the soil of the empire:

"'We published on the 19th inst. the comparative tables drawn up by the Administration of Customs and of indirect taxes, presenting the imports and exports of the principal kinds of merchandise. The first fact that attracts attention is the large increase in the importation of certain raw materials destined for French manufacturers. Cotton, of which the quantities that paid duty were, in 1858, 715,000 metrical quintals, (221½ lbs. each,) and in 1859 739,000, attained in 1860 the enormous figure of 1,160,000 quintals. Even when deduction is made of the quantities sent abroad, there remain 1,083,070 quintals—that is to say, 344,000 more than the quantity consumed in the corresponding period of 1859.'"

TREATIES WITH JAPAN.

Lord ELGIN has recently visited Scotland, and in a speech delivered at Dunfermline he described his official visit to Japan, and gave an ac-

count of the negotiation of the English and American treaties with that country. His tribute to the energy and address of Mr. HARRIS, the American minister, is interesting. We quote:

"When I went to Japan, in the year 1858, to negotiate a treaty, I found myself there in a very difficult position. In the first place, I had only a fortnight, and no more—owing to an obligation which I was under to return to China to arrange a tariff with the Chinese commissioners—from the day of my arrival at Yeddo, to perform the whole business. It is a curious thing, but I am never allowed more than a fortnight for such negotiations. When I went to the United States, in 1854, I was only allowed a single fortnight to negotiate a treaty which has admitted the whole produce of British North America to be brought into competition with the products of the United States in their own markets; and which likewise put an end to the risk of collision on the subject of the fisheries between this country and America, which was the most serious risk which had presented itself during the whole time I have been a public servant. I was in the same position in Japan.

"I found that the American minister, who had been resident for some years in the country, had succeeded in obtaining a treaty which involved a very considerable accession on the part of the Japanese, and was a great advance on the former state of their relations with foreign countries. The Japanese were willing to give me a treaty on the same conditions as they had negotiated with the United States, but they were very unwilling to go beyond the provisions of that treaty. And you will understand that their disinclination was not very unreasonable, when you reflect that by those treaties we deprive them of the same control over their fiscal affairs which we enjoy in this country. When we want, in this country, to make any alteration in our customs, or any other fiscal matters, we get our Chancellor of the Exchequer to deal with them as Parliament or the nation thinks they require; but we bind these Oriental nations by treaties which deprive them of any power, whatever exigencies may arise, to impose other duties. It is very desirable, therefore, and it is only fair to them that these treaties should be all as nearly as may be in the same terms; otherwise merchants would go and pick and choose among the articles, and the result would be an amount of confusion which neither the merchants nor the Japanese could disentangle.

"I therefore agreed to accept the American treaty. If you compare my treaty with China, which was my own making, with the treaty with Japan, which was made with the American minister, I think you will perhaps agree with me in liking the Chinese one the best. In framing alterations on the Japanese treaty, I confined myself as much as possible to things which were of the greatest importance; and one thing which I considered to be of the greatest importance was to obtain a lower rate of import duties for articles likely to be in most extensive demand. In the American treaty, I think twenty-five per cent. was the *ad valorem* duty imposed on all foreign imports; and I knew that if we could induce the Japanese to relax that duty with regard to a few articles of large consumption—the thin end of the wedge having been inserted in that way—in a short time we should, in all cases where we wished it, obtain a five per cent. instead of a twenty-five per cent. *ad valorem* duty.

"Well, we had a great deal of difficulty and discussion about this. I found the Japanese exceedingly intelligent negotiators, very tenacious, and properly so, of their rights. At length I succeeded in inducing them

to agree to an *ad valorem* duty of five per cent. in the case of cotton and woollen manufactures; but I was quite aware that it was useless to try to obtain any relaxation as to linen manufactures. This was not, however, of very great importance, for at that time I believe linen goods were not at all, or hardly at all, known in that country, But I am happy to say that the principle upon which I went has been entirely justified by the result; because, in one year after that, another knock was given to the wedge, and our linen manufactures were let in at the same rate, I believe I am justified in saying, as wool and cotton. I don't pretend to tell you that there will be a great demand in Japan for linen immediately—we must create these demands; but the Japanese are a very changeable sort of people, and when they see the admirable specimens of linen manufacture that come from Dunfermline and other towns in this district, I believe they will be fascinated by them, and we shall have a large demand by and by."

THE CUSTOM-HOUSE REGULATIONS OF RIO JANEIRO.

The London *Shipping and Mercantile Gazette* complains, and apparently with sufficient cause, of the Custom-House regulations of Rio Janeiro; and as we have considerable trade with Rio, we suppose these regulations are as annoying to our trade as that of Great Britain. The *Gazette* says:

"By the law of 1836, every shipmaster entering the port of Rio is bound, on penalty of a fine of 100,000 reis in case of neglect or refusal, to enter the Custom-House within twenty-four hours after the Guarda-mor, or chief customs officers, is on board. He is liable to a similar penalty if he remains at his anchorage twenty-four hours after he has got notice from the Guarda-mor to remove, or if he attempt to discharge without an order from the 'inspector,' or if he omit to give notice to the officer attending the discharge of the cargo, when such discharge is completed. By the same law it is rendered imperative on every vessel leaving Rio for Bahia, Pernambuco, Maranham or any other port of the empire, to have two manifests, exact copies of each other, setting forth the 'name, class and tonnage of the vessel; the name of the captain, whose signature must follow the date; the name of the port or ports for which the vessel is destined; the marks or counter marks and numbers of the packages, and their description as bales, cases, pipes, half-pipes, barrels, &c.; a declaration of the quantity and quality of the merchandise of each package, or several similar ones of the same mark, and also of what is on board in bulk; the name of the consignees or to order; all to be written in length except the numbers of the packages.' The regulations are all independent, of course, of the formalities required for manifests of cargoes in ships clearing for foreign. They are also independent of the various charges for anchorage, lights, port duty, health bills, hospital charges, seals on ship's papers at the rate of 40 reis (2d.) for every written half sheet. These by no means exhaust the list of charges to which foreign vessels, entering or clearing the port of Rio, are subject by the fiscal regulations of Brazil, but they are sufficient to show the nature of the obstacles with which the foreign trade with that productive country has to contend.

"So serious have the Brazilian Custom-House regulations become, that it has been thought expedient by those interested in the trade with Bra-

zil, at Liverpool, to hold a meeting for the purpose of adopting a memorial to the Brazilian government praying for a revision of the system of formalities required for clearances. The proceedings resulted in the appointment of a committee to wait on the Liverpool Chamber of Commerce, with the view of eliciting the opinion of that body on the subject, and of taking such steps as might seem most advisable towards procuring the repeal of the regulations in question. How far the efforts of these gentlemen have been successful we are not informed, but it can hardly be that a representation made to the Brazilian minister here, and forwarded to his government, would be entirely disregarded. If, however, the merchants and ship-owners of Liverpool fail to produce the desired effect on the Brazilian government, they should be joined in their representations by those connected with the Brazilian trade in London, and not only in London but in every port in the country which has any trade with Brazil. We had hoped that the advent to power of a new government at Rio would have been marked by a change in the regulations which have occasioned these remarks, and that we should have heard ere this that the Brazilian Custom-House system, so far as it relates to clearances, would have been revised. In this expectation we have been so far disappointed, but we can hardly believe that the government of Rio will continue to pursue a course which has already had, and must continue to produce, a most injurious effect upon the foreign trade of Brazil."

Our principal export to Brazil consists of flour, domestics and lumber, all easily described; but when any of our vessels have a general cargo the difficulties complained of by the British are also felt by us; we are, therefore, to a certain extent, a party interested in having them removed. Lately many American vessels have loaded in England for Rio Janeiro, but we suppose their cargoes were coal; nevertheless, everything which impedes commerce we ought to do our part in having removed or modified. We hope our government will call the attention of the Brazilian authorities to the Custom-House regulations of which foreigners have so much cause to complain.

FOREIGN TARIFFS.

The Statistical Department of the English Board of Trade has issued a parliamentary paper on the subject of tariffs. It is a return of the new and old rates of duty upon the several articles (so far as the same can be given) levied by the tariffs of foreign countries, in which alterations have been made, and showing the per centage increase or decrease of duties, and the date of their alteration, from the 31st December, 1859, to the 25th February, 1861. The list of countries included in the return are Russia, the Zollverein, France, Spain, Portugal, Cape Verde Islands, Sardinia, Naples, Greece, Morocco, Brazil, the Argentine Confederation, Venezuela, the Sandwich Islands and China. Upon pig-iron imported into the Grand Duchy of Finland, the reduction has been 82 per cent., viz., from 20s. 1½d. to 1s. 6d. per 3¾ lbs. Great reductions have taken place in the duties hitherto levied on metals and hardware imported into Naples. On all kinds of old iron the reduction is 89 per cent., or from about 15s. 10d. to 1s. 9d.; on iron wire the reduction is 24 per cent., or from about 7s. 11d. to 6s.; on common wrought-iron upwards of 72 per cent., or from about 15s. 10d. to about 4s. 4d. On old tin and tin in blocks the reduction is upwards of 71 per cent., or from £1 4s. 9d. to about

7s., and on wrought-tin the fall is over 72 per cent., viz., from about £3 3s. 7d. to about 17s. 7d. On lead, in pigs, the reduction is 85 per cent., the old duty being 8s. 10d., whilst the new is nearly 1s. 4d., and on wrought-lead the new duty stands at a fraction over 7s., whereas the old duty was 17s. 8d., a reduction of 60 per cent.—all in 220·40 lbs. avd. On machinery the new duty is 1 per cent. *ad valorem*. Under the old duties steam engines for national vessels, and some other machines, might be imported duty free, under permission of the Minister of Finance. Hardwares are reduced from £3 10s. 8d. to £2 4s., or upwards of 37 per cent. in some descriptions, and from £10 12s. to £4 8s. in others, or 58½ per cent. per 220·45 lbs. avd. The new import duties adopted by the Brazilian government show that iron, in pig or ingots, has been reduced one-half since the period before the 3d of last November, but on filings the duty has been increased 33⅓ per cent. The duty on pig-iron is about 1⅓, on a little over 32 lbs., and that on filings is a little over 10⅝d. on the same quantity. A very slight reduction has taken place in sewing and packing needles, on the former of which the present duty is about 1s. 8¾d., and on the latter about 1s. 3¾d., on a fraction over 1 lb.; polished spars now pay 6s. 3½d. the dozen pairs; common locks about 2½d.; common buckles nearly 2d.; steel pens nearly 3s. 2d.; nails and tacks (common) up to 2 in., about 1½d.; above 2 in. somewhat over 1½d.; and nails with brass heads nearly 2½d., all per about 1 lb. In locks the new rates are an increase of 5 per cent., and in steel pens an increase of 133⅓ per cent. Buckles are a decrease of upwards of 22 per cent. Nails are an increase ranging from 15 per cent. to 17½ per cent. The duty on horse-shoes is now somewhat over 2s. 4¼d. for somewhat over 32¼ lbs., or a decrease of 12½ per cent. On the same quantity of copper mixed with zinc tinned the present duty is 6s. 9d., a decrease of upwards of 16½ per cent. Tin in bars, sheets, &c., and common utensils, the duty now is a little over 1s. 9½d., against the old duty of 1s. 8¼d.; and zinc, in bars, sheets, &c., and common utensils, it is 2s. 3d. against 1s. 8¼d., all on the same quantity last mentioned. The cutlery imported into Brazil is charged at per dozen instead of, as before, according to weight. The duty on pen, fruit and garden-knives ranges from about 1s. 1d. to about 8s. 1½d. per dozen. On scissors the new duty, as compared with the old, is an increase of 211 per cent., the prevailing duty being over 1s. 3d., whilst the former tax was not 5d. In the Argentine Republic the import duty on unworked brass and steel, copper in lumps, or sheets and bars, iron in bars, pigs, or sheets, tin plates and articles of soldered tin, the old duty of 20 per cent. *ad valorem* is reduced to 5 per cent. *ad valorem*, a decrease of 75 per cent. Works in metal, except gold and silver, are now charged 15 per cent. instead of 20 per cent., or a decrease of 25 per cent. These duties were dated from the 14th of last September. Since the 24th of last October cutlery has gone into China free. Yellow metal sheathing and nails now pay 6s., and Japan copper 4s. per 133⅓ lbs., instead of 10 per cent. *ad valorem* as before. Iron, manufactured, as in sheets, rods, bars, hoops, the new duty 10d. instead of 1s.; unmanufactured, as in pigs, 6d. instead of 8d.; on iron wire the new duty is 1s. 8d.; on lead, in pigs, it is 1s. 8d., a decrease of 37½ per cent., and in sheets 3s. 8d., an increase of 37½ per cent.; on steel the new duty is 1s. 8d. against 2s. 8d., a decrease of 37½ per cent.; but on tin it is 8s. 4d. against 6s. 8d., an increase of 25 per cent.; and on unenumerated metals the duty is 5 per cent. *ad valorem*, against 10 per cent. *ad valorem*, all per 133⅓ lbs.

JOURNAL OF AGRICULTURE.

BRITISH WOOL.

Mr. Caird, M. P., read at a recent meeting of the Council of the Royal Agricultural Society of England a very interesting paper upon British wool. He remarked that, although there had been an immense increase in the importation from foreign countries and the colonies during the last twenty years, the rearing of sheep for the production of British wool continued to be one of the most profitable branches of our industry. Within the period referred to there had been, no doubt, in the imports from Spain and Germany, a diminution of about 4,000,000 pounds, but at the same time, to compensate for this, there had been an increase from Russia, the Low Countries, Denmark and Portugal, of no less than 20,000,000 pounds. There had been an increase within this period, in round numbers, from Australia, of from 13,000,000 pounds to 54,000,000 pounds; from South Africa, of from 1,000,000 pounds to 14,000,000 pounds; from the East Indies, of from 4,000,000 pounds to 14,000,000 pounds. At home, the increase in the amount of wool produced was equally remarkable. In 1842 the home-grown wool did not exceed 100,000,000 pounds. It now amounted to 120,000,000 pounds. There had been, in short, an augmented supply of wool to the extent of nearly seventy-five per cent. It had not been followed by any diminution of price to the home producer. Now, the countries in which the production of wool is likely to increase most rapidly, viz., Australia, the East Indies, South Africa and South America, are all unsuitable to the production of the lustrous long wools, for which there is a great demand. The British islands supply this wool in the greatest quantity. They may be almost said to have a monopoly of it, and there are no countries which can enter into competition with them. Mr. Caird is, therefore, of opinion that the British wool-grower should develop its production as much as possible, and he thinks the supply may be increased by good farming and liberal feeding. The best cross that could at present be adopted on suitable soils would, he adds, be obtained by using the improved Lincoln or Leicester ram, in which the desirable qualities of length, lustre, strength and fineness of wool seemed to be best combined.

FRENCH BEET-ROOT SUGAR.

According to an official return just published in France, concerning the manufacture of beet-root sugar from the commencement of the season 1860–61 to the end of the month of April, it appears that the number of establishments in activity were 334, being four more than in the corresponding period of the preceding year. The number of manufactories not at work, but having sugar still in stock, had diminished from twenty-four to fifteen. The quantity made was 97,900,000 kilogrammes, being 27,000,000 less than in the corresponding period of 1860. The quantity delivered for consumption had increased from 6,000,000 to 18,500,000 kilogrammes.

THE WILD SILK WORMS OF INDIA.

Dr. EIGHTS, of Albany, has received a fragment of the silken cloth woven from the threads of one of the *tussah*, or wild silk worms of India. He says:

I send you samples from three distinct species, which are to be found in all the western forests, extending from Ramghur to Midnapore; the cocoons of each are collected in the month of September.

The first of these (which, in the language of the country, is termed the *mooga*) is the most common and plentiful; the thread is coarse in its texture, but can be wound with the greatest facility. The cocoons are obtained directly from the trees of the forest, and are sold in an unprepared state to the purchasers. The caterpillars are to be found freely feeding upon the leaves of the ashan, saul and sejah trees, being frequently placed on their branches when found elsewhere for that purpose. These larvæ commence spinning their cocoons about the middle of the month, and complete the process near its close; they are then collected and placed in boiling water to destroy the grub.

The *teerah* is the second species. It furnishes a much smaller cocoon, and is supposed by many to be the male of the former. The thread is represented as being much finer in texture, but not so easily reeled.

The third is the *bonbunda*, the largest of the wild silk worms in the country, and from which the present specimen of silk cloth was obtained. This is the species that bears so close an alliance to the *saturnia cecropia* of this country, spoken of in a former article. In its wild state, the cocoon is of much larger size than any of the cultivated species. In some seasons it is to be found in considerable quantities, but it is generally scarce. This is supposed to be owing to the depredations of many of the feathered races, who esteem them highly as an article of food.

These three species, belonging to the same genus, are termed by the natives, the "rainy weather" varieties; but there are others peculiar to the dry months, which, by way of distinction, are called the *dabbo* and the *buggoy*.

The former of these yields a fine thread and an excellent cocoon. The chrysalis begins to eat its way through the pod from the 8th of June to the termination of the month, and spins its mantle from the middle to the end of August.

The *buggoy* is of a light drab color, giving out a fine thread, and very soft; so much so as almost to equal in value the cocoon of the mulberry silk-spinning moth, particularly those reared in the vicinity of Singhboom. It approaches so near to the pure silk that the weavers are said to mix it frequently with the real, in the proportion of one thread to three, at their manufactories. The seed is procured in August and September. Spinning begins in the middle and is completed by the end of November.

There is another inferior species gathered in December, called the *yarroy*. It is a small cocoon, and difficult to wind; the thread, also, being exceedingly harsh. The seed is procured in the month of October, and the caterpillars spin their cocoons from the 15th to the close of December. It is held in less estimation than any of the other species. The natives, in preparing the silk for use, boil the cocoon in an alkali until it shells off and the threads appear to separate.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS OF IOWA FOR 1861.

The presence at the capital of members of the legislature from nearly every county in the State during the past week, presented an excellent opportunity for obtaining important information in regard to the present agricultural position and prospects of Iowa for the year 1861. After careful inquiry the subjoined facts have been elicited. They are believed to be correct, and the increase indicated is within rather than above the real condition of things. Yet, as the members had not prepared themselves to give positive information, it must only be received as a pretty fair approximation to the true condition of our probable agricultural resources for the present year. Should the season continue favorable, however, it is believed the general aggregate will be sustained.

It appears from the returns the breadth of wheat sown in the State is about one-fourth more; of corn nearly one fifth more, and of pork for market there will be at least one-third more than in 1860. And of the crop of corn of 1860 there appears to be over one-third, and of wheat over one-fourth on hand. That the indications for a good crop of wheat were never better, and that the yield would fully equal that of last year, 16 bushels per acre as the average of the State; and that about one-half of the corn was planted by the 11th of May.

In addition to the above, I learn that all the cereal crops indicate an excellent yield; that preparations are making for a greater breadth of sorghum and imphee than in any previous year; that much of the land has been seeded with clover and timothy, probably double that of any previous year. In short, that our farmers are working and seeding as much land, and perhaps more, than they may find force enough to secure the yield therefrom.

As published last year, the yield of wheat was upwards of 19,000,000 bushels, or an average of 16 bushels to the acre; add for the additional breadth of land sown last fall and this spring, at the same average per acre, at least 4,000,000 bushels, and we have the probable amount of 23,000,000 bushels for 1861—all of which can be spared out of the State, as we have about 5,000,000 bushels on hand for home consumption for a year. This, if sold at 50 cents per bushel, will give us $11,500,000.

The corn goes into beef and pork. The published estimate of last year from this office was $7,000,000 worth for both these items. This sum is nearly equally divided between them. From the data obtained we have a pretty sure prospective increase of one-third for pork over 1860, and from extensive inquiry and the known average increase, one-fourth may be safely put down as the probable increased product of beef cattle. This will give the aggregate value $9,375,000 for 1861, for beef and pork, beyond our own consumption; but as the prices may range lower, it would be altogether safe to place the amount at *eight millions of dollars.*

The result of all the above is, that the present prospective product of this State for the year 1861, beyond our home consumption, for wheat, hogs and beef, will be worth $19,500,000.

WM. DUANE WILSON, *Sec. Ag. Col.*

OFFICE OF AGRICULTURAL BUREAU,
Des Moines, Iowa, May 22, 1861.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

CITIES OF EUROPE.

Population of the Principal Cities of Europe according to late returns.

London,	2,950,000	Pesth and Bude,	186,945
Paris,	1,525,525	Rome,	180,359
St. Petersburg,	494,656	Turin,	179,655
Vienna,	476,222	Hamburg,	171,696
Berlin,	438,961	Copenhagen,	113,635
Naples,	413,920	Venice,	118,172
Madrid,	301,660	Dresden,	117,750
Lisbon,	275,286	Munich,	114,734
Brussels,	263,481	Stockholm,	101,502
Amsterdam,	248,756		

THE NEW CONGRESSIONAL APPORTIONMENT.

The Secretary of the Interior has addressed the following official communication to the Speaker of the House of Representatives:

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
Washington, July 5, 1861.

To the Speaker of the House of Representatives:

I, CALEB B. SMITH, Secretary of the Interior, do hereby certify that, in discharge of the duty devolved on me by the provisions of an act of Congress, approved May 23d, 1850, entitled "An act providing for the taking of the seventh and subsequent censuses of the United States, and to fix the number of the members of the House of Representatives, and to provide for the future apportionment among the several States," I have apportioned the representatives for the thirty-eighth Congress among the several States as provided for by said act in the manner directed by the twenty-fifth section thereof. And I do hereby further certify, that the following is a correct statement of the number of representatives apportioned to each State under the last or eighth enumeration of the population of the United States, taken in accordance with the act approved 23d May, 1850, above referred to:

To the State of—

Alabama,	6	Minnesota,	1
Arkansas,	3	Mississippi,	5
California,	3	Missouri,	9
Connecticut,	4	New-Hampshire,	3
Delaware,	1	New Jersey,	5
Florida,	1	New-York,	31
Georgia,	7	North Carolina,	7
Illinois,	13	Ohio,	18
Indiana,	11	Oregon,	1
Iowa,	5	Pennsylvania,	23
Kansas,	1	Rhode Island,	1
Kentucky,	8	South Carolina,	4
Louisiana,	5	Tennessee,	8
Maine,	5	Texas,	4
Maryland,	5	Vermont,	3
Massachusetts,	10	Virginia,	11
Michigan,	6	Wisconsin,	6

The aggregate being two hundred and thirty-three (233) representatives.

In testimony whereof, I have hereunto subscribed my name and caused the seal of the Department of the Interior to be affixed, this fifth day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-one, and of the independence of the United States of America the eighty-sixth.

CALEB B. SMITH.

THE CHINESE IN CALIFORNIA.

The probable number of Chinese now in the State of California, it may be of some interest at this period, to inquire. Previous to 1852, the immigration of the Asiatics to that coast did not exceed a few thousands. Owing to the destruction, by fire, of the Custom-House records in 1851, there is no positive data as to what that immigration was, but from figures offered in 1856, by Mr. HANLEY, a Chinese agent, who had the subject specially under consideration, it is presumable that the excess of arrivals over departures, previous to 1852, was about 5,000. We shall adopt this number in the following estimate, and furnish details of subsequent years:

	Arrivals.		*Departures.*		*Increase.*
Previous to 1852,.....	5,000	....	....	....	5,000
1852,.....	20,026	....	1,768	....	18,258
1853,.....	4,270	....	4,221	....	49
1854,.....	16,184	....	2,330	....	13,854
1855,.....	3,473	....	3,329	....	144
1856,.....	4,807	....	3,028	....	1,779
1857,.....	5,924	....	1,932	....	3,992
1858,.....	4,903	....	2,152	....	2,751
1859,.....	3,182	....	2,715	....	467
1860,.....	7,241	....	2,068	....	5,173
1861, to date,.....	957	....	737	....	220
Total,.....	75,967	....	24,280		51,687

THE BRITISH CENSUS OF APRIL, 1861.

The first British census was taken under Mr. PITT's administration in 1801. It was the year of the union with Ireland; a year of famine, and a year of sanguinary war with France, having the northern confederacy for its allies. The population of Great Britain was estimated at 7,392,000 in 1751. Manufactures and the large towns increased, but emigration was commencing, and some country villages were deserted. Goldsmith sang:

> Ill fares the land to hastening ills a prey,
> Where wealth accumulates and men decay;
> Princes and lords may flourish or may fade,
> A breath can make them as a breath has made:
> But a bold peasantry, their country's pride,
> When once destroyed, can never be supplied.

And Dr. PRICE contended that there was an absolute decay of the population. This gave rise to a protracted controversy, which, in the critical

state of the country, it was important to settle. The population of Great Britain was then enumerated in 1801, and amounted to 10,917,000, and with that of Ireland united with her, made above 16,000,000. This was a triumphant reply to the doubts of those who despaired of their country. Notwithstanding the war the population increased, as the census showed, at the rate of two to three millions every ten years until 1841. Then immense emigrations took place; there was a depopulating famine in Ireland, which had an imperfect poor law, and cholera was epidemic; yet the population of Great Britain was augmented by 2,308,000, and although the population of Ireland fell off, the people of the United Kingdom amounted to 27,724,000 in 1851. There will be no investigation as to the "religious profession" of any one. That inquiry, when proposed last year, having been met with general disapproval, was abandoned by the government.

The census concerns every individual in the British Isles. Early in April a schedule was left with the occupier of every house and apartment; and shortly after sunrise, on Monday, 8th April, 30,441 enumerators in England and Wales began their calls at every house, and collected the schedules which they have previously left, filling up those of persons who have been unable to write. A similar army performed a precisely similar operation in Scotland, in Ireland and in Australia. It is sometimes asked, why is the seventh census to be taken? What is the use of the information to be collected? The injunction "know thyself" is as binding on nations as on individuals.

CITIES IN GREAT BRITAIN.

Partial returns of the new census of Great Britain are given in the latest English papers. The official record of the cities of Liverpool, Manchester and Glasgow is published, and sufficient returns have been received from the agricultural districts to show a decrease in the population. We glean some interesting facts from the statistics.

Liverpool.—The population of Liverpool, in round numbers, is 450,000. The city proper contains but 263,000 persons, the remainder being distributed in the suburbs of Exeter, Kirkdale, West Derby and Toxteth Park. The port of Liverpool has a large floating population of sailors, reckoned in this census at about *fourteen thousand* men. In 1841 the number of sailors was twelve thousand, in 1851 it was thirteen thousand, and in 1861 but one thousand more than ten years ago. The total population of the city and its suburbs, at the census of 1851, was 375,955, so that the increase in ten years has been a little more than twenty per cent.

During the last four years the number of inhabited houses in Liverpool has likewise increased from 54,000 to 66,000. In 1831 the buildings in the town were estimated to cover an area of 6,000,000 square yards, while in 1765 they only covered an area of 1,184,000 square yards.

Manchester.—Manchester has decreased in population, losing 2,000 inhabitants of the city proper by reason of the conversion of dwelling-houses to office and other business purposes, and alterations in narrow streets. The increase in the townships adjoining that of Manchester is

extraordinary, but may be accounted for by the compulsory migration from Manchester arising out of the causes mentioned. The present population of the city and its suburbs is 357,000—a gain of 40,000 in ten years.

The census superintendent in Manchester reports, that while the decrease in the city proper is going on, the conversion of the property out of which it arises increases the gross assessment of the township, by better buildings, in a remarkable way. The effect will be to reduce the poundage on the poor and other rates, and eventually to reduce pauperism by the sweeping away of the lower descriptions of dwellings.

Glasgow.—The analysis of the census of the city of Glasgow has been published. The population of the "ancient burg" of Glasgow amounts to 403,142; of whom 189,220 are males and 213,922 are females. The population of the district known as the "ancient burg" and the suburbs is 446,395; of whom 209,999 are males and 236,396 are females. The amount of the population in 1851 was 360,138; thus showing an increase, in 1861, of 86,257. In 1861 the number of inhabited dwellings was 82,609, and of uninhabited, 4,002, compared with 63,153 and 1,547 in the year 1851, being an increase, in 1861, of inhabited dwellings, to the extent of 19,456, and of uninhabited, 2,455. The population is composed of 326,374 Scotch, 10,809 English, 63,574 Irish, 827 foreigners, 1,440 colonists, and 118 not ascertained. The number of males between the ages of five and fifteen amounts to 40,694, with 40,118 females; and of this number 116,868 males and 16,214 females were not, at the taking of the census, at school. The number of domestic servants within the city was 218 males and 12,856 females; total, 13,074.

EMIGRATION FROM GREAT BRITAIN.

Some surprise may be excited by the fact, made apparent by an official return, that in the last fifteen years 3,504,062 persons have emigrated from the United Kingdom. This prodigious exodus has in great part taken three directions—the North American colonies, the (dis) United States and the Australian colonies. But an analysis shows that Brother Jonathan has, notwithstanding the powerful allurements of the antipodean gold discoveries, obtained by far the lion's share of our surplus strength. Thus, every one hundred emigrants selected their future homes in the following proportions:

Year.	*British America.*	*United States.*	*Australia.*	*Other Places.*
1846,.....	34	63	2	1
1847,.....	42	55	2	1
1848,.....	13	76	9	2
1849,.....	14	73	11	2
1850,.....	12	79	6	3
1851,.....	13	80	6	1
1852,.....	9	66	24	1
1853,.....	10	70	19	1
1854,.....	14	60	25	1
1855,.....	10	59	29	2
1856,.....	9	63	26	2
1857,.....	10	60	29	1
1858,.....	8	52	35	5
1859,.....	6	58	26	10
1860,.....	7	68	19	6

The great preponderance obtained by the United States was derived from the Irish emigration, through religious and political influences, and, subsequently, family ties. What influence the present disturbances may exert upon the Republican territory, as an emigration field, it is of course impossible to predict; but they can hardly exercise a favorable effect. Canadian journals are evidently of this opinion, and are doing their utmost to divert the tide of emigration to their own shores. The advocates of emigration to Canada have, however, it will be seen, met with singular ill success—for it is now only one-fourth as popular as it was fifteen years since—the emigrants to British America having numbered 43,439 in 1846, as compared with 9,786 in 1860. This, no doubt, is due to the superior attractions now presented by Australia, New-Zealand, the Cape and other emigration fields.—*Times.*

POPULATION OF THE WORLD.

M. DIETRICI, director of the office of Statistics at Berlin, has published in the annals of the academy of that city the result of his researches relative to the present population of the globe. An addition to his calculation of the total number of inhabitants, which he puts down at upwards of 1,288,000,000, M. DIETRICI estimates the number of the different human races as follows: the Caucasian, 369,000,000; the Mongol, 552,000,000; Ethiopian, (negroes,) 196,000,000; the American, (Indians,) 1,000,000; the Malays, 200,000,000. The leading religions he divides as follows: Christianity reckons 335,000,000 adherents; Judaism, 5,000,000; the Asiatic religions, 600,000,000; Mahometanism, 160,000,000; and Polytheism, 200,000,000. Of the Christian population, 170,000,000 belong to the Roman Catholic church; 80,000,000 to Protestants, and 76,000,000 to the Greek church.

CURIOSITIES OF THE ENGLISH CENSUS.

Relative Population of London and the Provincial Towns—Excess of Females in England.—The Registrar-General estimates the number of English emigrants from the United Kingdom in the ten years between 1851 and 1861 at 640,210, and returns the number of registered births over registered deaths in the same period at 2,260,576. This would leave an increase of 1,620,366, but the actual augmentation enumerated on the 8th of April was 2,134,116, showing that 513,750 births must have passed unregistered in the ten years. It appears that the population of London is nearly equal to that of the twenty leading provincial towns, having a population of 70,000 and upwards—Bolton, Birmingham, Bradford, Brighton, Bristol, Hull, Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester, Newcastle, Norwich, Nottingham, Oldham, Portsmouth, Preston, Salford, Sheffield, Stoke-upon-Trent, Sunderland and Wolverhampton, all put together—the metropolis having 2,803,034 inhabitants, and the great provincial centres, 2,963,945. The population of the latter is, however, increasing more rapidly than that of the metropolis, the augmentation having been 440,798 in London, as compared with 591,058 in the provincial towns, so that COBBETT'S "great wen," is not, as some assume, absorbing all the power of the State.

With regard to forty-three secondary towns, the population of which ranges between 20,000 and 50,000, an advance has been made from 1,414,093 in 1851, to 1,653,386 in 1861, showing an augmentation of 239,293; and one hundred and seven still smaller towns, including, as in the case of their larger brethren, the additions made to many of them for parliamentary purposes, having a population of from 5,000 to 20,000, had in 1851, 954,038, and in 1861, 997,389 inhabitants, showing an augmentation of 43,351. The metropolitan district consequently increased in population at the rate of eighteen per cent.; the great centres of manufacturing industry at the rate of twenty-four per cent.; the second-class towns at the rate of seventeen per cent.; and the little boroughs at the rate of four per cent. In fourteen still smaller townships, having less than 5,000 inhabitants each, the population remained all but stationary, being 52,108 in 1851, and 52,559 in 1861; so that the lower one gets in the scale the more stagnant one finds the tide of human life.

The excess of the fair sex in England amounts to the alarmingly large total of 544,021; but this disproportion between the sexes is not universal, the rougher section of humanity being in a majority in Derbyshire, Durham, Essex, Herefordshire, Kent, Hampshire, Staffordshire and Westmoreland. In Middlesex there are 165,389, and in Lancashire, 86,100 more women than men, and the agricultural counties also reflect the continuous drain of emigration upon their adult male population.—*London Times.*

VITAL STATISTICS OF 1860.

The Registrar-General for England has issued his annual tables of the number of births, deaths and marriages of 1860. The number of births and deaths had been already stated in the last quarterly report, but the number of marriages (170,305) had not then been ascertained. It is larger than in any previous year; the nearest approach to it was in 1859, when the number was 167,723. The births in 1860 (683,440) were fewer by 1,441 than in 1859, but that is the only year in which they were exceeded; the deaths (422,472) were happily less by 18,777 than in 1859, and less also than in 1858, 1855 or 1854. Allowing for the estimated increase of population, the births in 1860 were slightly above the average rate of the preceding ten years, the marriages were more above it, and the deaths were still more below it, all movements in the right direction. As usual the first half of the year saw the greatest number of births, about ten per cent. more than the last half, and the deaths in the first moiety were greater than in the last by the large ratio of 23 per cent. The last quarter was, as usual, the marrying season; there were 50,702 marriages, and only 35,198 in the first quarter. Lincolnshire is always a notable exception to this last rule; there the spring quarter is the chief time for marriage. The termination of the ordinary periods of service has, doubtless, much influence in this matter.

VITAL STATISTICS OF SCOTLAND.

The Registrar-General for Scotland, who has hitherto issued no detailed annual reports, has just commenced the series, beginning with his first

year of office, 1855. Taking first the births, the superintendent of statistics calls attention to the circumstance that the proportion of boys born to girls is greater in the rural districts than in the towns, in which, indeed, in that year, the illegitimate boys born were absolutely fewer in number than the girls. This is attributed to a residence in towns weakening the physical strength of parents, and it is considered a rule so established as to "afford a valuable hint to those who desire male progeny." With reference to incontinence, the report states that it is found most prevalent in those districts in which farm-work is done by unmarried young men and women, who sleep in the farm-house, or sometimes in bothies set apart for that purpose. It is contended that in many of the irregular connections which too often in Scotland are substituted for marriage, the parties are true to each other, and that, indeed, the vice of unchastity seems greatly owing to the excess of a Scottish virtue, for the proportion of illegitimate births is highest where the test of signature of the marriage register indicates the greatest prevalence of education, and where, therefore, it may be supposed that the prudential check operates most to prevent improvident marriages. It would appear from the year's returns that, though marriages are much fewer in Scotland than in England, yet when Scotchwomen do marry they are more prolific than the English. Some rather curious matrimonial statistics are supplied. It is remarked that widows, marrying bachelors, selected, as a general rule, husbands younger than themselves; "the *status* which the widow had acquired by her former marriage presented inducements to the unsettled bachelor, which gave the widow a great advantage over her unmarried sisters; and, as power is dear to every heart, a younger member of the opposite sex was selected, as more likely to leave that power in her hand than if the chosen second husband had been her senior in years." The Scotch stand the educational test well; 88.6 per cent. of the men who married, and 77.2 of the women, signed their names. In England, in the same year, the proportions were 70.5 and 58.8. The deaths in the year (a year of more than average mortality) were only 206 in 10,000 persons, showing Scotland to be one of the very healthiest countries on the face of the globe. The annual per centage of deaths to population is stated thus: Scotland, 2.06; England, 2.21; France, 2.36; Belgium, 2.52; Holland, 2.76; Prussia, 2.83; Spain, 2.85; Sardinia, 2.91. Some points of interest in relation to disease and mortality are noticed. Including the secondary diseases, twice as many women died from childbirth as in England. This is thought not much attributable to distance from medical aid, and the question is raised whether it is not owing to certain anatomical conformations. It may seem strange to speak of Scotland as a place for the consumptive, but Argyll and the Western Isles enjoy a remarkable immunity from consumption; those islands have a mild winter climate, with a more humid atmosphere than the main land when the arid easterly winds prevail in spring. Of the influence of weather, we learn that in Scotland, with the single exception of diarrhœal complaints, all the ordinary epidemics of the country increase with the increase of cold, and it is the cold that kills. The diseases induced by heat seldom prevail anywhere until the mean monthly temperature rises above 60 degrees, and that is a rare occurrence in Scotland.

RAIL-ROAD, CANAL AND TELEGRAPH STATISTICS.

BUFFALO AND NEW-YORK CITY RAIL-ROAD.

The New-York and Erie Rail-Road Co. has purchased the above road for $125,000. The road thus purchased is 91½ miles long, from Hornellsville to Buffalo, and has been run by the Erie Rail-Road under a running arrangement.

This road was first commenced in 1850, and opened for business between Attica and Hornellsville in 1852, at which time its funded debt in bonds secured by mortgage on this section of road, 60 miles long, amounted to $700,000, payable in fifteen years. The company then purchased the portion between Buffalo and Attica, 31½ miles, and made a further issue of $500,000 bonds, having eight years to run, secured by this section. In 1853 the company made a further issue of $500,000 bonds, payable in twelve years, secured by second mortgage on the whole road. After this issue the company failed to pay interest, and in 1855 suit was commenced by the second mortgage bondholders. The road was sold in 1856 for $379,568. The purchasers conveyed it, in 1857, to the Buffalo, New-York and Erie Rail-Road Company, and this company assumed the payment of the first mortgage on the Buffalo and Attica section. At the date of the report, in 1855, the cost of the road stood as follows:

Stock,	$ 798,439
Funded debt,	1,720,000
Floating debt,	867,849
Total,	$ 3,386,288

The earnings in the same year were,

Gross earnings,	$ 288,392
Expenses,	256,496
Net earnings,	$ 31,896

By the present sale the whole property brings $125,000.

MICHIGAN.

The Detroit *Daily Advertiser* states that the last legislature of Michigan not only passed a law extending the time for completing the land-grant rail-roads the full time allowed by the act of Congress making the grant, but also one giving them two hundred and forty sections as soon as they shall complete twenty continuous miles of road, provided that the Lansing, Amboy and Traverse Bay Road shall be completed to Lansing City from Owosso before being entitled to the additional one hundred and twenty sections. This last law, it is confidently asserted, will enable the companies to make such negotiations as are alone required to finish these important roads.

PHILADELPHIA.

At a special meeting of the board of managers of the Philadelphia and Reading Rail-Road Company, held on Saturday, June 1st, 1861, the resignation of ASA WHITNEY, Esq., president of the road, was accepted, to take effect on the 15th July next. The adoption of Mr. WHITNEY's resignation of the presidency was followed by his being elected a manager, and CHARLES E. SMITH, Esq., one of the present managers, was unanimously elected president of the road, to succeed Mr. WHITNEY. At the same meeting Mr. STEELE resigned his offices of vice-president and manager, to take effect on the 1st of September 1861, and was unanimously elected chief engineer of the company, to take effect from that date.

RAILWAYS IN AUSTRALASIA.

There are eight railways radiating from Melbourne in different directions, from three stations. The Suburban, a competing line with part of the Brighton, has been opened to Prahran and East St. Kilda. This railway has another branch to Hawthorne. The following is a list of those now in operation: Melbourne, St. Kilda and Brighton, 8 miles; Melbourne and Sandridge, 2½; Melbourne and Williamstown, 9; Melbourne and Geelong, 47; Melbourne and Sunbury, 24; Melbourne and Essenden, 4½; the Suburban, two branches, 7: total, 102 miles. The Sandhurst will be opened to Woodend, about 22 miles beyond Sunbury, in March or April. The practicability of street tramways is under discussion in the City Council, and locomotives on common roads are actually in use in New South Wales.

TRAFFIC THROUGH FRANCE.

The remarkable increase in the flow of traffic through France this year, which was noticed recently, still continues. The last weekly return of the Paris, Lyons and Mediterranean line exhibits the immense increase (on only two additional miles) of £20,085, and since the commencement of the year the augmentation has been no less than £130,000, while on the London and North Western—thanks to the "unrestricted competition" which prevails in England—the advance has barely amounted to £10,000. The increased traffic on the great French arterial line has been mainly derived from merchandise, which figures in the last weekly return for £63,799, while passengers yielded the comparatively small sum of £19,837. From this it would appear that the commercial resources of the south of France are being much more actively developed than hitherto.

RAIL-ROAD BRIDGES.

The directors of the New-York Central Rail-Road have commenced the construction of a new bridge over the Tonawanda Creek, at Batavia. The Batavia *Times* states that the new structure will be a wrought iron trussed girder bridge of one hundred and twenty-four feet span, embracing the double track between two girders. The trusses consist of frames stiffened and strengthened by lattice work, and when viewed in sections as they now lie in a detached and bulky form, impress us favorably as to their capacity of sustaining an immense strain. The total weight of iron used in its manufacture is 205 tons, and the bridge is capable of sustaining a weight of about twelve hundred and fifty tons, a strain five times greater than can be brought to bear upon it by any passing train.

OCEAN TELEGRAPHS.

The Geographical Society, popular and very prosperous, (for at each of its fortnightly meetings a score of members are added to the 1,400 already enrolled,) met recently. The main subject discussed was the North Atlantic electric cable. We may offer a few observations on this subject. The discussion arose out of papers read at the preceding meeting by the persons who conducted the survey by land and sea from Scotland to Labrador, and when we say that those persons were Sir LEOPOLD M'CLINTOCK, Captain ALLAN YOUNG and Dr. RAE, it is the same as saying that it was performed with skill and intrepidity. But the practicability of connecting the Old and New World by an electric cable is a very different matter from a survey. Schemes as feasible, and even a good deal more so, have totally failed; but the reader shall judge for himself when we enumerate a few of them. First, then, the great Atlantic cable has been a great failure, and has cost the subscribers, as far as we understand, £450,000; the pounds and cable are equally at the bottom of the Atlantic. The next attempt was a greater, because a more costly failure. This was the Red Sea and Indian affair. It was to have brought the Nile and the Indus almost within hail of each other, although the distance between them was little short of 1,700 miles. For this adventure the government has given a guarantee of 4½ per cent. on a million sterling for half a century, or, in other terms, the nation is for that long time to pay an annuity of £45,000 without receiving the smallest consideration in return. It never conveyed even a single message throughout, so that, as far as the nation is concerned, the million sovereigns might as well have been consigned to the sea that swallowed up Pharaoh, his horses, his chariots and his horsemen. In the able debate which took place in the House of Commons, an honorable member naively and drolly ascribed the failure "to certain occult causes at the bottom of the sea, which could not be provided against." Our next speculation was meant to connect England with Spain by Falmouth and Gibraltar, and the government bargained in this case for a first-rate cable at the cost of some £400,000, but the Atlantic being deemed too deep for it, it was transferred to Rangoon and Singapore, a distance of 1,200 miles, embracing the best part of the Bay of Bengal and the whole of the Straits of Malacca, among a hundred isles, islets and coral reefs. The ship bearing it was wrecked in Plymouth harbor, when the cable was discovered to be damaged by the corrosion of the iron and the decomposition of the gutta percha. It was not, therefore, deemed good enough for the Indian Ocean, and it is now destined to connect Malta with Alexandria; all the cables of the Mediterranean, whether English or French, having already failed. If we include the cable which was to have connected Malta with Spezzia, through Sardinia and Corsica, and that which was to have connected Malta with Corfu, both of which have failed, we have spent not less than two millions in experimenting upon oceanic cables. But we are not the only people who have failed in the matter of long cables. The cable that was to have connected Algeria with France will not work, although it embraces but the breadth of the Mediterranean. The Dutch laid down a cable between Batavia and Singapore about six months ago. The distance is 660 miles, and it conveyed, like the great Atlantic cable, a few messages, when it stopped. Ships' anchors and coral reefs were

fatal to it; it has broken a score of times, and has been finally given up as a hopeless project. Such, then, being the result of our experience of oceanic electric cables, what chance of success can there be with a cable that proposes to bring the Old and New World together by the route of Scotland, the Faroe Islands, Iceland, Greenland and Labrador, over seas infested by icebergs, and along ice-bound coasts? We fear none whatever. The distance is little short of that across the South Atlantic. There are sea-gaps of 800 and of 500 miles, and the inhospitable land is rather an hindrance than an advantage. We are, then, decidedly of opinion that a North Atlantic cable is a hopeless project that will not be, and ought not to be, attempted. The government, goaded on by the press and the public, has been already severely bitten, and will assuredly not guarantee a farthing. Without its guarantee there will as assuredly be no subscribers. Until some great discovery is made which no man at present even dreams of, our electric cables must be confined to the narrow seas, and the wafting of "sighs from India to the Pole" must be still an achievement known only in the domain of poetry.—*Examiner.*

THE RUSSIAN TELEGRAPH FROM CHINA TO EUROPE.

It is an established fact that mercantile houses of long standing in the East are very conservative in their ways, and view with little favor the innovations caused by steam and electricity. Lieutenant WAGHORN, the pioneer of the overland route to India, found small acceptance when he visited Canton in 1838, and proposed to British merchants the formation of the line afterwards made by the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company; and had Chinese affairs remained as they were—had there been no opium war, no Hong Kong under British rule—it is more than probable that we should not to this hour have had a line of mail between this and Suez. Bearing this conservatism in mind, it seems problematical whether the proposed line of telegraph between China and Russian Europe is not deemed by leading merchants here a nuisance rather than a good. This telegraph way, according to late advices, is making rapid progress and is already complete over some 600 miles to the eastward of Moscow, viz., to Perm, on the border of Siberia, say to long. 55 deg. E. and lat. 58 deg. N. From Perm the line will cross the Uralian Mountains to Ickaterinberg, and thence to Toumain on the left bank of the Irtysch. From Toumain the line is to run to Omsk, a fortified town the importance of which may be judged by the circumstance of its having a garrison of 4,000 men. From Omsk the line will proceed to and through Tomsk and on to Krasnoyarsk. This place is only 500 miles northwest of Kiakhta, to reach which, however, the wire will pass through Irkutsk, the capital of Eastern Siberia. From Kiakhta, (Mai-matsin, in China,) it is proposed to carry the line over the Yablanovoi Mountains to Cheta, to which place steamers already run from Nicalouski, on the Amoor. The line will not follow the line of the Amoor River, however, but across to Nestchmisk, and then down the Shilka River to Ourstrelka, a point just 6,000 miles from Moscow. How long it will take to construct the whole line we are not in a position to say; two or three years perhaps. Once constructed, however, the terminus on this side will become a place of note, and prove a leading instrument in the steady march of civilization in the East.—*Friend of China.*

THE MALTA AND ALEXANDRIA TELEGRAPH.

Messrs. Ford and Laws, electric telegraph engineers, returned from the coast of Barbary, in the Mohawk, last week, whither they had proceeded in that vessel for the purpose of selecting a landing-place for the electric cable about to be laid between Malta and Alexandria. The points at which it has now been determined to land the cable are Bengasi and Tripoli. In Malta it will be landed at Marsasirocco, (St. George's Creek,) and arrangements for this purpose are being made. The land line will pass between Casal Asciak and Casal Zeitun by Casal Tarscien and Casal Paola, through Marsa, into the town. The wire will be raised on the newly-invented iron tripod supporters, and not on wooden poles, as in the case of the Corfu and Sicily lines. The cable, on board of three or four ships, may be expected here about the end of the month.—*Malta Times.*

NEW SUBMARINE TELEGRAPH CABLE.

The renewed concession of the French government to the Submarine Telegraph Company having stipulated that a third cable should be laid for more direct communication with Lyons, Bordeaux, Toulon, Genoa and the Mediterranean, the Asia screw steamship took on board 81 miles of cable for that purpose, and with Mr. Henley, the contractor for laying it, proceeded to Dieppe. The shore end having been successfully laid, the Asia returned to Beachy Head, making 58½ miles, and the cable was carried ashore without accident at Birling Gap, about a mile to the westward of Beachy Head. This cable constitutes an addition of 60 miles to 806 already laid by this company.

THE AMERICAN TARIFF IN ENGLAND.

A feeling akin to consternation pervaded a portion of the iron trade on 'Change at Wolverhampton on the 6th of March, at the intelligence that the new American tariff bill had, in all probability, become law. Should this bill become law, it will prove most disastrous to the iron trade of Great Britain, inasmuch as scarcely any iron of British make can, with such a duty as that proposed, find any sale in the American markets. On bars, the principal description sent out, the increased duty would be more than a guinea a ton; on hoops, chiefly used by the southern States for baling their cotton, £2 6s.; on boiler plates, £1 14s.; and on all kinds of sheet iron, £1 17s. The increase on hardware will be in the same proportion. On best cast and sheer steel the proposed increase would be 92 per cent.; second quality, 120; extra, (axe temper,) 81; table blade, 136; common hoe and fork, 167; round machinery, 154; best German, 216; second quality, 241; best sheet, (cast,) 54; hoe and shovel, (cast,) 142; best quality blister, 103; second ditto, 211; gin saw steel, (best,) 87½, and second quality, 128 per cent.

FRENCH RAILWAYS.

A bill has been presented to the legislative body authorizing the construction of 25 railways, of a total length of 823 miles, which are to cost

£14,692,000. Amongst the number is the Paris Girdle Railway on the left bank, to cost £880,000. The expenditure upon French railways up to the end of last year has been, by the State, £32,440,000, and by companies, £152,000,000, making a total of £184,440,000. On the 1st of January of the present year the State had contracted to pay the railway companies £7,870,000, and the companies had undertaken works for railways already conceded to cost £57,320,000; and for lines to be hereafter conceded to cost £12,000,000.

HORSE RAILWAYS IN NEW-YORK.

In the official report of the New-York State Engineer and Surveyor, made to the legislature at its last session, are the following statistics respecting city railway companies. The figures are for the year ending September 30, 1860:

	Passengers.	*Receipts.*	*Expenses.*	*Dividends.*
Brooklyn City,.....	10,477,984	.. $520,855 18	.. $409,959 88	.. $80,000
Eighth Avenue,.....	7,775,040	.. 388,750 20	.. 274,121 84	.. 120,000
Ninth Avenue,.....	1,984,341	.. 99,217 07	.. 70,958 72	.. ....
Second Avenue,.....	5,196,602	.. 263,061 73	.. 233,362 43	.. 52,000
Sixth Avenue,.....	7,398,908	.. 369,945 40	.. 261,698 64	.. 90,000
Third Avenue,.....	12,109,417	.. 610,597 17	.. 445,241 53	.. 122,850

SCINDE (INDIA) RAILWAY.

By advices from Kurrachee, dated 21st April, several heavy trains have passed over the railway with regularity and safety, some of them containing about 300 passengers. The line has also been used for the conveyance of troops, artillery carriages, military stores, and for Punjaub materials. The Parsees and other traders at Tattah, on the Indus, are forming branch establishments at the Joongshaei station, and the collector of the district is laying out the surrounding ground for building purposes. The Tattah traders also propose constructing, at their own expense, a branch or tramway to connect Joongshaei with Tattah. The company's steamer STANLEY was to leave the terminus at Kotree, on the Indus, for Mooltan, it being her first commercial trip, on 23d of April, taking first and second class passengers, with about 200 tons of cargo, receiving for the upward freight alone about £1,200. Cargo had been already collected at Mooltan for the return trip to Kotree.

ENGLISH ENTERPRISE IN INDIA.

The Bombay *Gazette*, of February 2d, gives a description of a stupendous railway enterprise in progress near that place, called the "Bhore Ghaut Incline," which, in other words, is an inclined railway on the Ghaut Mountains, believed to be the greatest undertaking of its kind in the world. This incline is an enormous mass of masonry, crowded upon an unhealthy, desolate and almost inaccessible mountain scarp. As showing the capabilities of English enterprise, it is specially noteworthy. On a recent excursion of the principal residents of Bombay to inspect these works, the chairman of the Bombay Committee of the Great Indian Peninsular Railway made a comparison with the celebrated Semring

Incline, on the railway between Trieste and Vienna, which is 13¼ miles long and 1,831 feet in height, whereas the Ghaut Incline is 1,831 feet higher from base to summit, and extends 15⅞ miles. The number of laborers in constant employment on this work is from 40,000 to 43,000, and the amount of contract work performed in a single month has exceeded $200,000, or £50,000 sterling.

RAILWAY PROGRESS IN INDIA.

The present financial difficulties of the railway companies, and the English demand for cotton, (says the *Friend of India*,) are calling attention to the state of the existing lines. The East Indian Railway, commenced in 1851, will probably be finished in 1865. The line will be opened as far as Bhagulpore, 264 miles from Calcutta, in about six months. The communication with Benares will be effected some time in 1862, and the line between Allahabad and Agra in February of that year. The link between Benares and Allahabad will be among the last to be supplied. Turning to the south, we find that the line eastward from Beypore will soon be completed to Parasanoor, a distance of 30 miles. Of the 405 miles from Madras to Beypore, 207 are open to Salem. The branch line, 84 miles, to Bangalore, leaving the trunk line 132 miles from Madras, is in progress. Nothing has yet been done to the branch from Coimbatore, 22 miles, to Metapolliem, at foot of the Neilgherries. The Madras and Bombay line leaves the main trunk to Beypore, 42½ miles from Madras. Of its whole length, *via* Bellary, for 327 miles to Moodgul, where the G. I. P. line will meet it, 182½ miles are in progress, and 17 are opened for traffic from the junction. Of the 335½ miles of the Great Southern of India line, from Negapatam on the coast to Trichinopoly, 78½ miles are in progress, and will be open about the middle of the year. Nothing has yet been done to the branch, for 87 miles, to Errode, to join the Beypore line, or to the branch, for 170 miles, *via* Madura to Tuticorin. Of the Great Peninsular Railway, 350 miles are now open. The Bombay and Baroda Railway is open from Lucheen, ten miles north of Surat, to Dolia, nine miles north of Baroda. The whole difficulty in the way of India supplying England with cotton is the want of easy and cheap means of communication between the interior and the coast. To this, more than to the establishment of societies for supplying seed and machinery to the ryots, should Manchester direct its attention. The Bombay government has deputed Captain Anderson to visit the great cotton districts of the Southern Mahratta country. He will be accompanied by a Bombay merchant. The supreme government are about to nominate an official for the same purpose from Calcutta, to begin his inquiries from Mirzapore, and extend them through Central India.

RAILWAYS IN INDIA.

The report on railways in India, for the year 1860, by Mr. Danvers, the secretary of that department, has just been published. It appears that, on the 31st of December last, the number of miles open was 842, being an increase of 208 during the twelve months. Of these 842 miles,

100 are constructed with double and 742 with single lines of rail. The most important of the lately completed sections is that on the Eastern Indian Railway, between Cynthea and Rajmahal, Calcutta being thus connected with the Ganges, so as to render it possible for 250 miles of dangerous river navigation to be avoided. No new lines have been sanctioned during the year, and the Oude Company has been postponed; 227 miles of the East Indian Railway Company's scheme, (Allahabad to Jubbulpore,) 240 miles of the Punjaub Company's scheme, (Delhi to Lahore,) and 183 miles of the Great Indian Peninsula and Madras Companies' schemes, (Sholapore to Bellary,) have also been postponed. The extent of line now in course of execution is 2,932½ miles, of which 1,353½ miles are expected to be opened during the present year, and the remainder in 1862. This will include the great trunk line from Calcutta to Delhi. A scheme has been brought forward for a line into the Guicowar's territory, in connection with the Bombay and Baroda, and another to bring the French town of Karricall, on the coast of Madras, into communication with the Great Southern of India line. These, however, are foreign works, and the India government, although desirous of facilitating them, have no direct concern with them. The importance of constructing ordinary roads as feeders on the railway lines is engaging attention, and the Madras government has sanctioned the construction of forty-three roads, of an aggregate length of 1,083 miles. The annual earnings of railways, on the 30th of June last, were £318,310, and will probably amount to £400,000 for the year ending 30th June next; but, although the indications of traffic are satisfactory, the ultimate prospects cannot be estimated with accuracy until the entire cost of each line shall have been conclusively ascertained. Up to the end of last year the total number of shareholders in Indian railways was 17,118, of whom only 336 were native Indians. The latest estimates for the completion of all the lines sanctioned in India amount to £56,000,000, of which, however, about £7,000,000 represent the cost of the sections that are to be postponed, reducing the essential amount to £49,000,000. Of this sum, £34,396,444 had been raised up to the 30th ult., the end of the Indian official year, leaving about fourteen or fifteen millions to be supplied, of which at least £8,000,000 will be required for the twelve months ending the 30th of April, 1862. Of these eight millions six will be expended in India.

RAILWAY DIRECTORS IN FRANCE.

Accounts have been given of the prosecution of M. Millaud (formerly a partner of M. Mires) and of Mr. Stokes, before the tribunal of correctional police, for alleged fraud in connection with the Nassau Railways; (a prosecution which ended in the acquittal of the former and the condemnation of the latter, by default, to five years' imprisonment;) also of actions brought against Millaud, before the civil courts, by shareholders in those railways, to get back sums which they had paid. Two days back four other persons brought a new action before the civil tribunal against Millaud, and also against General Molines de Saint Yon, M. Levy and M. Cheppes, who had been, with him, directors of the Nassau Railway, to obtain restitution of the sums they had paid for shares, on the ground that they subscribed on an assurance that the company had

obtained from the Nassau government the guarantee of a minimum revenue of seven per cent., and that such statement was altogether false. The tribunal, after hearing pleadings, condemned all the defendants to reimburse the sums in question, and to pay interest at five per cent. on the amount. With regard to MILLAUD, who was the originator of the affair, the court ordered that if the restitution were not made without delay, he might be arrested and lodged in the debtors' prison.

THE QUALITY OF IRON RAILS.

Quality, not quantity, is the essential for economy in buying rails. How hard we have striven to impress this fact, so well known to every workman or employee on a railway, upon the hard heads of some managers. Now it is a fact, that rails costing eighty dollars per ton may be really cheap, while others costing twenty dollars may be actually very dear. There is the same difference in the quality of rails that there is in boots and shoes. An expert can readily detect the real value of rails, as well as some railway managers can tell the quality of a piece of roast beef or mutton they are masticating. Just remember this fact: there is no company so rich that it can afford to pay for poor material for the superstructure of its line. In England the necessity of employing good iron for rails is now so generally acknowledged, that, in order to insure a superior quality, one of the greatest railway companies have established works to manufacture their own iron, and another company, not less important, are just about to follow their example. In the United States, too, the managers of the best conducted roads do not scruple to pay from five to fifteen dollars per ton above the quoted market rates for rails. They find this is true economy, and so will the rest of them if they secure what they pay for—rails of the best quality. The heaps of refuse material which is rolled into the shape of rails, and peddled about the country at a low price, is just like PINDAR'S razors—made to sell, not wear. Experts for the examination of rails can be had if the companies are willing to pay for the service they render; and let us assure our managers that they can afford to pay well for just this kind of information, or rather, they can't afford not to have the information, no matter what it costs to procure it.—*Railway Times.*

THE TEXAS AND NEW-ORLEANS RAIL-ROAD.

The Texas division of the Texas and New-Orleans Rail-Road has been completed to this city. The whole distance from Houston to New-Orleans is about three hundred and forty miles. Of this distance there are now one hundred and eighty miles of completed road, and forty miles more (Brashear to New Iberia) ready for the iron, leaving but one hundred and twenty miles to be built.

Houston, as the rail-road centre of Texas will, when the whole road is completed, pour a trade over it of enormous proportions. Already there are spreading out in four directions from it, rail-roads in the aggregate 280 miles in length, besides this under consideration, striking to the heart of the great sugar region, the great stock region, the great cot-

ton region, and ultimately the great wheat region of this State. Other roads are projected to become the channel of trade for all Eastern Texas, and all these roads must be the feeders of the New-Orleans road, when once it goes into operation. As the connecting link between the rail-road system of Texas and the commercial metropolis of the Confederacy, the importance of this road cannot well be over-estimated.—*Houston Telegraph, May*, 1861.

THE LADRONE ISLANDS.

The Ladrones comprise a group of not very extensive islands, some twenty or more in number, but situated so close together, that on approaching them they have the appearance of one large irregular island. Contrary to the general aspect of the Polynesian Islands, the Ladrones present a rugged, gloomy appearance, dark, beetling cliffs rising to a towering height perpendicularly from the water's edge. The interior of the islands is, however, fertile in the extreme, the country being overrun with rank, luxuriant vegetation, differing singularly from the trim, neat manner in which Nature herself has decked the Society, Fiji and Friendly groups—for, strange to say, in these latter, however indolent and careless the natives, the soil always seems to be well cultivated, and vegetation trimmed to the perfection of neatness.

The Ladrone Islands were discovered by Magellan, in the middle of the 17th century, and were named from the Spanish word for thief, (*Ladrone,*) in consequence of the thievish disposition of the inhabitants, though in reality they are no worse than their neighbors. They belong to Spain, though the Spanish government has made no use of them, and of late years has withdrawn the few civil and military settlements formerly maintained on the Island of Tinian. The natives appear to be a happy, careless, indolent, contented race of savages, apparently a cross between a Papuan negro and the Polynesian aborigines.

THE SOURCES OF THE NILE.

The Levant *Herald* says:—"Baron Hochbein, envoy from the Duke of Saxe-Coburg Gotha, who recently presented the Grand Vizier with the decoration from that prince, left during the past week for Alexandria, after himself receiving the third class of the Medjidieh. From Alexandria he proceeds, accompanied by six scientific fellow-travellers and an armed escort of thirty attendants, to explore the sources of the Nile. The Prussian government has placed a sloop of war in the Red Sea at the disposal of the party. The Baron has already made one journey to Soudan, and on this second expedition intends, it is said, to penetrate into a country which has been explored by no previous traveller."

THE AMOOR COUNTRY.

According to the report of Mr. Collins, the Amoor River has an outlet in the ocean, which can be entered by merchant ships and steamers, and it is navigable for steamboats more than two thousand miles from the Pacific Ocean. Already seven American commercial houses have

been established at Nicolaiosky, the commercial port of the Amoor, with which there is now communication by means of ships and steamboats from the United States. It can be reached by steamboats in two days from Hakodadi and other ports in Japan, with which a profitable trade has already sprung up.

On the tributaries of the Amoor is a population of fifteen or twenty millions of people, inhabiting a vast and productive country, not destitute of wealth in material resources, and the valleys, watered by the Amoor, are rapidly filling up with the military colonies of Russia. There is a growing demand for the products of American industry and ingenuity.

EXPLORATION OF THE RED SEA.

A report was presented last week to the Academy of Sciences, on a paper sent in some time ago by M. COURBON, on the results obtained by him during an expedition sent to the Red Sea for scientific purposes by the Emperor of the French. M. ST. CLAIRE DEVILLE, who was the reporter for the geological part, stated that M. COURBON had minutely examined many parts of both coasts of the Red Sea, had also crossed the Egyptian Desert between Cosseir and the ruins of Thebes, and even penetrated to the neighborhood of the town of Halay, in Abyssinia. Of this country M. COURBON has made a highly interesting geological map, and, moreover, given a minute description of the configuration of the soil at Jeddah, the Island of Desseh and the Bay of Adulis, the Island of Doomairah, &c. At Edd he found an immense basaltic wall built by nature, the whole country being of volcanic formation. The Island of Perim is trachytic. The culminating points of the island reach an elevation of 228 feet, and prove that the island itself is the result of a volcanic eruption under the sea. The lava had first raised up the large bank of madrepores which covered the bottom, and had then forced its way through the interstices, and become visible over the water. This volcano, the vast crater of which embraced the Bay of Perim, in course of time covered the new island with mud, ashes, trachytic blocks, &c., and then became extinguished. M. VALENCIENNES, who reported on the zoological part, noticed among the specimens brought by M. COURBON a new species of the genus gymnodactylus. It is a Saurian, to which M. VALENCIENNES has given the name of gymnocephalus. There were also two species of fish, the cyprinodon lunatus and cyprinodon dispar, which M. COURBON had fished in a lake near Massuah, the waters of which marked as much as 111° of Fahrenheit. This was the first instance on record of cyprinodons living in such warm water. A third kind of fish inhabiting the rivers of Abyssinia, quite unknown, and belonging to a genus of which a single species only has yet been met with in Java, M. VALENCIENNES has called balitora pusilla. M. BROGNIART, the reporter on the botanical part, stated that M. COURBON had presented his valuable herbarium to the Museum of Natural History, and mentioned several new species or varieties of plants brought home by the enterprising traveller.

JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.

FIRE INSURANCE.

The annexed table, compiled from a parliamentary return just issued, shows the amount of duty paid by the fire insurance offices of the United Kingdom during the year 1860. The total duty paid was £1,558,585:

Sun,	£ 216,275	Kent,	£ 15,601
Phœnix,	138,578	Caledonian,	12,950
Royal Exchange,	86,682	Royal Farmers,	12,302
Norwich Union,	82,309	Hand-in-Hand,	10,490
County,	70,473	Scottish Provincial,	10,081
Imperial,	61,897	Birmingham District,	8,998
Liverpool and London,	60,952	Law Union,	7,196
West of England,	59,856	Essex and Suffolk,	7,120
Royal,	59,534	National, Ireland,	6,948
Alliance,	51,849	National, Scotland,	6,895
Globe,	45,858	Provincial,	6,594
Atlas,	45,727	Patriotic,	6,264
Manchester,	41,791	Queen,	6,251
Law,	35,938	State,	5,697
Guardian,	34,172	Midland Counties,	5,503
London,	33,620	Church of England,	5,370
Westminster,	33,053	Nottingham and Derby,	4,996
Union,	32,194	Salop,	4,088
Scottish Union,	32,001	Newcastle-upon-Tyne,	3,782
Leeds and Yorkshire,	27,588	Sheffield,	3,635
North British,	26,879	Norwich Equitable,	3,140
Lancashire,	24,698	Hants, Sussex and Dorset,	2,464
Yorkshire,	22,870	Equitable,	2,180
Northern,	21,841	Shropshire and North Wales,	2,061
General,	17,013	United Kingdom Provident,	1,398
Unity,	16,280	Emperor,	704
Birmingham,	15,925	Preserver,	24

LIFE POLICIES NOT SUBJECT TO FORFEITURE.

The following is an extract from the report of Hon. William Barnes, Superintendent of the Insurance Department, to the legislature of New-York:

"The entire forfeiture of policies by the non-payment of premiums at a certain specified date has long been a serious obstacle to the increase of life insurance. The impolicy, if not the injustice of this provision, is practically acknowledged by nearly all the companies, and the forfeiture is seldom fully enforced. I cannot but regard it, therefore, as a matter of public congratulation that the New-York Life Insurance Company has issued a table of rates of premium for life policies expressly stipulating that after the receipt of two or more annual premiums, if further payments are discontinued, a new policy will be issued to the original holder, if living, for a specified proportion of the sum insured, or, if deceased, an equitable sum will be paid to his family or legal representatives."

THE GREAT FIRE IN LONDON.

The Phœnix and the Sun are the heaviest sufferers by the London fire of 22d and 23d June, the former to the extent of about £225,000, and the latter, we believe, not much short of that amount. The Alliance will, in all probability, be the third on the list of sufferers; and following, in respect of amount of loss, the order in which we place their names, the Royal, the London Assurance Corporation, the Royal Exchange, the Atlas, the Globe, and the Liverpool and London, form a group with the Alliance. A third group will be formed by the Manchester, the Northern, the Imperial and the Lancashire. From this point the losses, we have reason to believe, will be found diminishing in amount through the following series of offices: the Unity, the Union, the General, the Westminster, the Queen, the Leeds and Yorkshire, and the West of England, which last named company will be found to have "got out of the fire" with the comparatively small loss of about £5,000; and a less sum even than that will be found sufficient to discharge the respective liabilities of the Guardian, the Church of England, the Hand-in-Hand, the Law Union, the Royal Farmers, the Provincial Welsh and the Yorkshire. The County Office has entirely escaped, its business chiefly consisting of the insurance of private dwellings and the property they contain. The losses of the Law, in respect of the extent of its transactions, will, from a like cause, be found to be very light. The State, according to the declaration of its officials, stands at *nil.* The Scottish offices, namely, the Scottish Union, the Caledonian, the North British and the Scottish Provincial, had no primary risk on the property; but they will be sufferers, to some extent, by guarantee to other offices. The entire amount of loss sustained by the whole of the insurance companies may be estimated at £1,200,000, a sum that will probably not fall far short of the premium income of the present year; so that the richer class of companies will have to draw upon their reserve funds for the payment of all other losses of the year; whilst, in some few cases, in order to make provisions for such payment, it may be necessary, where the capital is not fully paid up, to make a call on the shareholders.—*Post Magazine and Insurance Monitor.*

FIRE-PROOF BUILDINGS.

The late gigantic fire at London Bridge has tested and found wanting our present system of fire-proofing warehouses. Party-walls of immense thickness, stone staircases, iron beams and pillars have been of no avail against the spontaneous combustion of a little heap of hemp; and the probability, indeed, is, that one of the most valuable lives in our working hive has been sacrificed to our latest notion of fire-proofing warehouses containing highly inflammable commodities. It is instructive to know that poor Braidwood to the last protested against the use of cast-iron in the construction of our river-side warehouses. In the paper he read at the Institution of Civil Engineers in 1849, "on fire-proof buildings," he denounced the use of this untrustworthy material in the most decided manner, and pointed out that some great calamity must inevitably befall the men of the fire brigade, sooner or later, in their attempts to extinguish the vast conflagrations which were likely to take place in those extensive buildings. His own destruction has been the first testimony to the

correctness of his views. The fire raging in one of these warehouses can only be compared to that of a blast furnace, and in consequence of the cast-iron pillars speedily become red-hot, the water from the hose falling upon these pillars suddenly contracts and snaps them like so much glass, and, of course, the floors fall in at once. There is another danger to those outside these warehouses. The massive girders of cast-iron supporting the flooring of course expand with the heat; and no walls, however strongly built, can possibly withstand their lateral thrust, and down they come, to the destruction of those near at hand. We have no doubt whatever that this was the cause of the falling of the wall which killed poor BRAIDWOOD. It was proved on the inquest that there was no saltpetre in this part of the building; it was also proved that no explosion took place here at all. It has been suggested that the walls were burst out by the swelling of the cotton bales, but it is quite needless to attempt such an explanation when we know the iron girders, heated to a white heat as they were, must have elongated nearly half a foot, pressing before them the solid wall.—*London Review.*

NEW INSURANCE LAWS OF MASSACHUSETTS.

The following is a list of titles of acts relating to insurance companies, &c., passed at the last session of the Massachusetts Legislature:

3. To continue in force an act to incorporate the Cambridge Mutual Insurance Company.

7. To extend and alter an act to incorporate the Union Mutual Marine Insurance Company.

9. To authorize the Hingham Mutual Fire Insurance Company to hold real estate.

14. Granting further time to the Suffolk Insurance Company to close its affairs.

17. To continue in force an act to incorporate the Weymouth and Braintree Mutual Fire Insurance Company in Weymouth.

19. Relating to the Springfield Fire and Marine Insurance Company.

45. To change the name of the Mechanics' Mutual Fire Insurance Company.

47. In addition to an act to incorporate the Arkwright Mutual Fire Insurance Company.

55. To reduce the capital stock and the number of the Directors of the National Insurance Company in Boston.

69. To incorporate the Fall River Mutual Fire Insurance Company.

72. In addition to an act to incorporate the Howard Fire Insurance Company.

101. To incorporate the Nonantum Fire Insurance Company.

117. Extending the time for paying in the capital stock of the Phœnix Insurance Company.

150. To incorporate the Cape Cod Mutual Fire Insurance Company.

152. Concerning the form of Policies of Fire Insurance.

170. In regard to agents of Insurance Companies.

185. To incorporate the Mutual Protective Fire Insurance Company.

186. To regulate the forfeiture of policies of Life Insurance.

189. Relating to the term of Insurance Companies.

JOURNAL OF NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

PRICES OF IRON PROPELLERS.

A LATE number of the Savannah *Republican* contains an article on purchasing steamers, containing the following table, which is said to be "furnished by a leading ship-yard in Glasgow, Scotland, and may be relied on by those who would embark in the business:"

GLASGOW PRICES OF PROPELLER STEAMSHIPS—IRON HULLS.

Length.	*Breadth.*	*Depth.*	*Horse Power.*	*Draft.*	*Knots.*	*Coal per 24 hours.*	*Tons.*	*Bales.*	*Price.*
284	36	25	200	14½	9	20	1,808	4,000	£41,000
280	38½	25	300	15	10	25	2,000	4,000	45,000
275	36	22	250	14½	9½	22	1,760	4,000	42,000
252	35	24	250	14½	10	20	1,500	4,000	34,500
260	35	23	250	14½	11½	18	1,600	4,000	40,000

OFFER TO THE LIFE-BOAT INSTITUTION.

A gentleman has intimated his intention to bequeath to the National Life-Boat Institution £3,000, on the condition that the society will, on the receipt of his legacy, place a first-class life-boat, thoroughly equipped, on some exposed point of the English coast, and another on the Scotch coast, and will undertake thereafter to keep them permanently in a state of efficiency. He also stipulates, that in the event of his increasing his bequest to £4,000, a third life-boat, on the same conditions, shall be placed on the Irish coast. The National Life-Boat Institution has now 112 life-boats under its charge. The late Mrs. SHEDDEN WATSON has bequeathed to the National Life-Boat Institution £500, to enable it to plant an additional life-boat on the coast, to be called "The Brave ROBERT SHEDDEN." Mr. SHEDDEN, who was Mrs. WATSON'S son, and was a lieutenant in the royal navy, had made a voyage around the world in his own yacht. Mrs. WATSON was, up to the period of her death, an annual subscriber of £10 10*s.* to the Life-Boat Institution.

NEW MODE OF PROPELLING BOATS.

An experiment of a very interesting character was tried in the docks of the Grand Surrey Canal, Rotherhithe, London. Mr. JAMES CARTER, a gentleman of a very ingenious bent in the application of mechanics, has for some years been elaborating a scheme of propelling river crafts of all sizes by atmospheric pressure. A discharge of air is effected beneath the vessel, acting downwards on the water and upwards on the sloping side of the boat, which is made flat for the better attainment of a due resistance. A crazy barge, of the "fly-boat" shape and capacity, was fitted up with boiler, engine and air-pump, got together

in haste, and but ill-adapted each to each. As for the engine, it was described as of "two cats' power;" and yet the force attained was sufficient to tow a heavy ladened lighter. One evident and palpable recommendation of the machinery is, that its chief motive agent is exempt from wear and tear. There is no concussion, no friction of any kind in those parts immediately connected with the propulsion of the vessel.

INTERESTING TO YACHTMEN.

It will be seen by the following paragraph, from an English paper, that the grand British regatta of July next was open to comers from all the world:

"The Royal Mersey Yacht Club having decided on holding a general regatta on the 4th and 5th of July next, on the Mersey, her Majesty has graciously expressed, through her secretary, her intention of presenting a £100 cup to the club, to be sailed for by yachts belonging to any royal or national club. In other words, the competition will be open to all the world. A general subscription has been entered into by the members of the club, in order that the regatta may be conducted on the most liberal and extensive scale, and many liberal donations have already been received. A full programme will be issued in due time."

The Liverpool *Mercury*, of the 12th, published the following telegraphic despatch from the Board of Trade in London: "Hoist signal down—dangerous winds may be expected." Vessels did not leave port in consequence.

THE DERELICT ERIN-GO-BRAGH.

In the Court of Admiralty, Dublin, on the 11th March, 1861, a petition was opened on behalf of the association of Lloyd's Underwriters of London, which stated that, in the month of November last, L. M. Wilson, of Quebec, timber merchant, had shipped at Quebec a large cargo of timber, on board the Erin-go-Bragh, of Liverpool, which, by the bills of lading, duly signed by Thomas Flavior, the then master, was consigned to the order of the shipper; and that, after having taken that lading, the bark proceeded in the prosecution of her voyage to the United Kingdom, and on that voyage became dismasted, and was abandoned at sea. The cargo having been insured at Lloyd's, was paid for by them as a total loss; and the bills of lading thereupon endorsed to them, that body became the legal owners of the cargo, should it ever be recovered. It appeared that the vessel, after being abandoned, drifted towards the western coast of Ireland and was discovered; and eventually, after four days continued exertions, was brought in as a derelict by the Rover, a steamer belonging to the Atlantic Steam Navigation Company. That steamer having commenced proceedings in the Court of Admiralty for salvage, the Queen, in her office of admiralty, intervened, assuming the property to be derelict, subject to the claims of the salvors and to all claims of rightful owners. The Queen's advocate now withdrew his opposition, and a decree for the plaintiff was consented to.

A NEW PIER AT SOUTHPORT, LANCASHIRE.

This pier was constructed at right angles to the line of promenade facing the sea, on an extensive tract of sand reaching to low water, a distance of nearly one mile. Its length was 1,200 yards, and the breadth of the footway was fifteen feet. At the sea end there was an oblong platform, one hundred feet long, thirty-two feet wide, at right angles to the line of footway. The superstructure was supported upon piers, each consisting of three cast-iron columns, and each column was in three lengths. The lowest length, or pile-proper, was sunk into the sand to the depth of seven or nine feet. These piles were provided at their bases with circular discs, eighteen inches diameter, to form a bearing surface. A gas-tube was passed down the inside of each pile, and was forced four inches into the sand. When a connection was made with the Water Company's mains, a pressure of water, of about fifty lbs. to the inch, was obtained, which was found sufficient to remove the sand from under the disc. There were cutters on the under side of the discs, so that, on an alternating motion being given to the pile, the sand was loosened. After the pressure of water had been removed about five minutes, the piles settled down to so firm a bearing, that, when tested with a load of twelve tons each, no signs of settlement could be perceived. The upper lengths of the columns had cast-iron bearing plates for receiving the ends of the longitudinal lattice girders, each fifty feet long and three feet deep. The centre row of girders having double the duty of the outside ones, top and bottom plates were added. The weight of wrought-iron work in each bay was four tons five cwt., and, of cast-iron work, one ton seventeen cwt. The second bay from the shore was tested by a load of thirty-five tons, equally distributed, when the mean deflection of the three girders, in twenty-four hours, was one and a half inches, and there was a permanent set of half an inch, on the load being removed.

The advantages claimed for this mode of construction were:—1*st.* Economy in first cost, especially in sinking the piles, which did not amount to more than four and a half pence per foot. 2*d.* The small surface exposed to the action of wind and waves. 3*d.* Similarity of parts, thus reducing the cost to a minimum. 4*th.* The expeditious manner of obtaining a solid foundation—an important matter in tidal work. Two hundred and thirty-seven piles were thus sunk in six weeks.

The estimated cost of the pier and approaches was £10,400. The works had been completed for £9,319, being at the rate of £7 15*s.* 4*d.* per lineal yard. The pier was designed by Mr. BRUNLEES, *M. Inst. C. E.*, and the superintendence of the construction was entrusted to the author, as resident engineer; Messrs. GALLOWAY being the contractors.—*Proc. Inst. Civ. Eng., March* 5, 1861.

THE DRUMMOND LIGHT.

We announced, some time since, that Professor GRANT had been employed by the government to erect one of his powerful calcium lights at Fortress Monroe, in order to shed light upon any nocturnal schemes that might be undertaken in that quarter. This is the most brilliant of all artificial lights, and will serve as a valuable agent even in war.

An improvement in the arrangement of the lime-points has lately been

patented by PROSSER & STANLEY, of London, for increasing the intensity of this light. It consists in arranging two lime-points opposite one another, towards the jets of flame, and they are made to converge toward a common centre, by being gradually pressed forward with a spring or a weight, to keep the points in contact when the flame impinges upon them. These lime cones are retained in tubes, and a fresh surface is continually presented to the action of the ignited gases.

The calcium light consists of a fine stream of hydrogen and another of oxygen gas, carefully brought into contact, and burned upon a piece of purified lime—fine chalk.

FRENCH WAR STEAMERS.

The armed steamship SOLFERINO, of 1,000 horse-power, and to carry fifty-two rifled cannon, was successfully launched at L'Orient on the 24th of June. The lines were designed by M. DUPUY DE LOME, and the ship built under the superintendence of M. DUCHALARD. This completes the six armored steam men-of-war which are actually afloat.

The armored frigate HEROINE is to be laid down on the slip from which the COURONNE was launched some time back. The MAGENTA, which was launched on the 22d of June, is 282 feet long, 52½ feet beam and 45½ feet in depth. The weight of the hull, when it left the slip, was 2,700 tons; when fitted with armor, engines and armaments, the weight will be 5,600 tons.

M. DUPUY DE LOME, Director of Naval Construction at the Ministry of Marine, has received orders from the Emperor to proceed on a tour of inspection of the naval ports of France. The *cadres* of the *personnel* of the navy are to be largely augmented, with a view to meet all future requirements.

The screw ship MASSENA left Toulon for the Hyeres station to try her engines for four days. The steel-plated frigate NORMANDIE is about to commence her trial trips at Cherbourg. The screw ship of the line NAPOLEON has returned to Cherbourg, after having made several successful trial trips with her new machinery. During her last trip, of thirty-six hours, she made thirteen knots an hour, with all her fires lighted, and 11.5 knots with only half her fires.

THE CREWS OF STRANDED VESSELS.

A series of exceedingly interesting experiments, having for their object the providing a certain means of communication between stranded vessels and the shore, as a means of preserving the lives of their crews at a time when communication by boat would be impossible, was brought to a close at Portsmouth recently, in a most satisfactory manner. The trials have extended over a period of some months, and the means proposed to be employed have been tested in every possible way by the gentleman who has suggested, in fact, carried it out at his own expense, Lieutenant G. S. NARES, senior lieutenant of Her Majesty's ship BRITANNIA, Captain ROBERT HARRIS, the naval cadet training ship in Portsmouth harbor.

Lieutenant NARES employs the common kite principle as his chief

agent; but while he sends his kite away to leeward, and consequently towards the shore, he retains the means on board the stranded vessel of bringing down the kite when flown sufficiently beyond the beach or over the cliff, so that the line attached to the kite may be hauled upon by the people on shore; and the end on board the vessel being attached to a hawser, and the latter, on reaching the shore, being hauled up the cliff, a means of escape to the crew and passengers, however numerous they may be, so long as the vessel holds together, or however violent may be the surf which intervenes between the ship and the land, is open to all, with the most perfect safety, by a boatswain's cradle, basket or slung cask being attached to the hawser, and hauled backwards and forwards by the people of the vessel and those on shore. To bring the kite to the ground, when sufficiently advanced beyond the face of a cliff or high-water mark, Lieutenant NARES has a second line attached to the right angle of the kite; holding on to this line, and letting go the flying line of the kite, the latter instantly capsizes and descends to the earth. This mode is applicable to the rescue of the crew of a vessel which has been driven well on shore, but is in a position, either from the surf or the formation of the coast, in which no vessel can approach her. Another mode in which this life-kite may be used is where it may be able to effect a landing on a beach to leeward, but the boats are washed overboard or stove, or the position in which the vessel may lie on a bed of rocks may render boats useless. In this case the flying line of the kite is attached by a toggle to the bunghole of a cask, to a couple of breakers with a boat's mast lashed athwart them, or round a man's chest, with the knot between his shoulders; in either case the kite finds the supporting power, and conveys the object its line is fast to on shore, another line being attached to the cask, raft or man from the vessel, and the communication with the shore is complete.

The particular credit due to Lieutenant NARES consists in having, by his second line, devised a means of bringing a kite to the ground at the moment required, and in also making use of the kite in attaching its flying line to an object in the water, a carrier of his hawser's hauling line to the people on the shore. Kites have been tried before, but have failed for the want of these two great requisites. A few years since a vessel drove on shore on the Devon coast, close under the land. The captain sent up a kite, which flew over the people's heads on shore, but they had no means of reaching it, and the whole of the unfortunate crew perished in sight of the people on shore, who were there ready to aid them could the line from the kite overhead have reached their hands. Recently the brig MERCY, of Bristol, was wrecked at Porthleven, in Mount's Bay. A tremendous surf was running, but to save the crew it was necessary to form some communication otherwise than by boat. A cask was thrown overboard among the breakers, with a small line attached, and was, after great difficulty and risk of life on the part of the people on shore, got hold of, and a hawser hauled on shore, to which a swung basket was attached, and the crew were saved. In this case the kite would have conveyed the cask to the people on the beach without their having to risk their lives by running into the breakers and surf to lay hold of it.

The concluding experiments by Mr. NARES were made from Her Majesty's steamer BULLFINCH, Lieutenant JAMES. The BULLFINCH, on

this occasion, was six hundred yards from the shore, and the experiments answered perfectly. Lieutenant NARES has presented his plan to the Shipwrecked Fishermen's Society, and also the fifty guineas which had been awarded him.

CAUTION TO MARINERS.

New and Dangerous Bank at the Sulina Mouth of the Danube.—By an extract of a despatch of Her Majesty's Vice-Consul at Sulina, forwarded to LLOYD'S by the government, it appears that a new and dangerous bank has formed off the Sulina bar of the Danube, and a caution is therefore given to masters of vessels to approach the bar with care, in order to avoid the shoals thereby created, and directions are given as follows to find the surest channel to enter the Sulina mouth of the Danube: "Vessels are on no account to approach the bar closer than one mile from the piers, or come into less water than five fathoms, without they get sufficient to the north to bring the light-house to show between the outer ends of the piers, bearing W. by S. half S. magnetic. Vessels must on no account attempt to go to the north of that line. As soon as circumstances will permit, a buoy will be placed on the northeast point of the bank."

DESTRUCTIVE STORMS IN FRANCE.

The *Moniteur de la Côte d'Or* states that the loss occasioned by the late storms in that department amounts to £144,000. In the department of the North and the Pas de Calais the crops have suffered. In the district of Dourgne 400 hectares of wheat were injured, and the loss is estimated at £3,200. In Burgundy, the districts of Joigny, Auxerre, Sens and Tonnerre, the ravages have been very great. The value of the crops lost in Auxerre is estimated at £20,000, and in Tonnerre at £10,000. The *Moniteur de Calvados* estimates the losses in that department at £484,600. In the department of the Haute Garonne the rain and hail did great damage to the crops. In the district of Longages trees were blown down and the countryside desolated. It has been the same in the department of the Vosges, and in the Haute Loire the damage is estimated at £13,400. At Vitry, in the department of the Marne, so violent was the wind that it stripped the roofs of many houses, tore up large trees by the roots, and blew down the church steeple of La Chausee. The rain resembled a waterspout, and was followed by a shower of such enormous hailstones that many persons who could not find shelter were seriously injured by them, and great numbers of hares, partridges and small birds were killed. The gardens, vineyards and cornfields over which the storm passed were ravaged, and all their produce lost. In the south of France storms were frequent. Aveyron, especially, had suffered much from hail. The Emperor has sent for the relief of the sufferers from the storm, £400 to the department of the Cher, £400 to the Marne, £1,600 to the Haute Marne, £1,200 to the Seine-et-Loire, £400 to the Cote d'Or, and £240 to the Allier. Letters from the departments contain fresh details relating to the terrific hailstorm which caused so much damage on the 22d June. At Touhan, near Lyons, the storm was so

intense that roofs of fifty and sixty feet long were stripped off houses, and the largest trees were torn up by the roots. At Saint-Seine and the neighborhood the hailstones lay so thick on the ground that a trustworthy witness asserts that he saw a bed of hailstones three feet thick on the road between Saint-Seine and Vaux-Saules. All the carriages travelling on the road at that time were overturned. The lightning at the same moment killed several horses in the fields. In the Yonne, on the same day, and at the same hour as in the Cote d'Or, the crops were totally destroyed in the districts of Soigny, Auxerre, Sens and Tonnerre. The appearance of the country is desolate. Vineyards are deprived of vegetation, gardens are laid waste and cornfields are ploughed up. The lightning, moreover, killed a number of cattle in that department. In the Nievre the wind and rain destroyed the growing crops, levelled more than 100 houses, and tore up thousands of trees, particularly in the neighborhood of Cosne. In the Allier three men were killed in the fields. Numerous rabbits and fowls perished in the poultry yards. The corn crops suffered great injury. The loss in that department is estimated at above 1,000,000 francs. In the Jura the hailstorm which was experienced on Sunday week laid waste eight communes in the neighborhood of Couliege. In the Marne numerous dwelling-houses were stripped of their roofs, church steeples were thrown down and several persons were injured. In the Rhone the commune of Chatelet escaped more serious injury by a heavy fall of rain, which dissipated the hailstorm. As a slight compensation, the hay crop is described as excellent throughout France.

SAN FRANCISCO HARBOR.

It is said that on the bottom of San Francisco harbor there are quantities of ship's chain-cables and anchors, which would richly repay any company who should set to work systematically to secure them by dragging. The deep ooze at the bottom furnishes a soft bed into which these heavy articles must long since have sunk, so that their recovery would be a work of great labor.

The *Alta* reports that Mr. MATTHEWS, the diver, who was employed to bring up the boiler of the steam-tug "DIANA," which exploded some time since off Vallejo-street wharf, succeeded in his task. A lighter was anchored near the spot from which he conducted his enterprise. The time he selected was dead low water, at which he succeeded in reaching and securing the boiler in four fathoms of water. It was hoisted into the lighter and conveyed to Stuart-street wharf.

A NAUTICAL SCHOOL IN NEW-YORK.

AN ACT TO ESTABLISH A NAUTICAL SCHOOL IN THE HARBOR OF THE CITY OF NEW-YORK. PASSED APRIL 15, 1861.

The People of the State of New-York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

SECTION 1. There shall be organized and established in the harbor of the City of New-York a nautical school for the purpose of educating boys in the learning and duty of seamanship and the science of navigation.

SEC. 2. The said school shall be under the exclusive management and

direction of five trustees, to hold their office for the term of five years, and three of whom shall be designated and appointed by the Chamber of Commerce of the City of New-York, and two of whom shall be appointed by the governor. The term of office of the said trustees shall begin on the first day of May, eighteen hundred and sixty-one.

SEC. 3. The said trustees shall make such by-laws for the transaction of their business as shall be, in their judgment, expedient, and not inconsistent with the laws of this State, and shall determine the number, station, term of office and duties of the officers proper for the management of said school, and their compensation, and the manner and time of their appointment, and shall appoint the same.

SEC. 4. The said trustees shall have power to receive such funds or property as shall be subscribed, or loaned, or bequeathed for the organization or maintenance of said nautical school, and execute all necessary agreements for the faithful application of the same, and to receive such boys as shall be sent to said school by their parents or guardians; and all such boys, when so received into said nautical school, shall be subject to such regulations of conduct and discipline as, in the judgment of the trustees, are best adapted to their proper government; and the receiving and discharging of said boys shall be only in accordance with the by-laws and rules of said school, as may be by said trustees adopted.

They shall have control of the school-ship of said institution, and shall exercise, in relation thereto, and its care, supervision and management, all necessary powers and duties. They may also send any boy in education at such school on such voyage as they shall deem advisable for his proficiency and welfare, and may declare such sending a discharge of said boy from such institution. The trustees shall also determine what shall be the age at which boys may be taken into said school, with the consent of his parents or guardian, and under what circumstances fees for board in said school-ship, and education and tuition may be charged and taken, and the rates of said board and education and tuition, and to extend to persons qualifying for stations beyond ordinary seamen the advantages of such school.

SEC. 5. Whenever the trustees shall receive, in valid subscriptions, the amount of thirty thousand dollars, they shall proceed to organize the said school, and they may determine in what manner and at what time such subscriptions shall be paid, and may appoint a treasurer and determine his specific duties, and provide for the safe-keeping of the funds committed to his care.

SEC. 6. The said nautical school shall at all times be open to the inspection and examination of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, and a full report of its affairs shall be made to said superintendent, at such time in the year as he shall designate.

SEC. 7. This shall take effect immediately.

NEW LIGHT-HOUSES IN EUROPE, &C.

BALTIC—GULF OF FINLAND.

New Light at South end of Hogland.—Official information has been received by the Light-House Board, Washington, that the Imperial Ministry of Marine at St. Petersburg has given notice that on and after the first day of August, 1861, a light will be exhibited from a light-house recently erected on the southern point of the Island of Hogland, in the Gulf

of Finland. The light will be a fixed *red* light. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses of the third order. The light-house is built of wood. Its exact position, height above the sea, distance at which the light is visible, and color of building, are not stated.

Also, that on and after the first day of July, 1861, the upper fixed white light on the northern hill of Hogland will be again exhibited, the repairs and alterations in the system of lighting being completed. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses of the first order.

Great Belt-Buoy near the Munke.—The inspector of lights and beacons on the east coast of Jutland has given notice that a red buoy, with staff and ball, has been placed near the Munke Shoals, between the islands of Seiero and Vœro, at the northern entrance to the Great Belt. The beacon lies in 5½ fathoms, at 170 yards E. by N. from the easternmost 18 feet shoals of the Little Munke. Hielm light tower bears N. ¼ W., Ellemand shill, N. W. ¾ N., northerly, and the north point of Vœro, W. by N. ¼ N.

England—South Coast.

Time Signal for Plymouth Sound.—For the purpose of giving Greenwich mean time to vessels desirous of ascertaining or verifying the errors and rates of their chronometers in Plymouth Sound, a time signal is daily shown at one o'clock P. M., by the instantaneous collapse of a cone suspended near the top of the flagstaff in the redoubt on Mount Wise, Devonport.

This time signal is not made as usual by the dropping of a ball, but by the collapse of a cone, which, when not in use, hangs in a closed state on the flagstaff. As a preparatory notice to the observer, at three minutes before one o'clock the cone is extended to its perfect shape, and at the instant of 1 P. M. of Greenwich mean time it collapses. Again, at two minutes later, it is once more extended; and at the instant of 1h. 5m. P. M. it again collapses. The second collapse is made in order to verify the first, or in the event of its not having been noted by the observer.

The instant of Greenwich mean time is obtained by means of a chronometer, brought from the observatory of Mr. Cox, optician, in Fore-street, Devonport, by whom it is compared, immediately before leaving, with a good regulator clock by Arnold; it may, therefore, be fairly depended upon to within one or two seconds of time. This time signal is not made on Sundays; and the present arrangement is only temporary until a connection is established by electric telegraph with the royal observatory at Greenwich.

The cone is of canvass, 4½ feet in diameter, and painted black. It is suspended below the flag on the flagstaff, at an elevation of 175 feet above the mean level of the sea, and its collapse may be seen from most parts of Hamoaze, over the whole of Plymouth Sound, and from those parts of Catwater used by sea-going ships. It may also be seen in clear weather with a glass at a considerable distance outside of Breakwater, when bearing between N. by W. and N. by E.

Mount Wise is the general signal station of the port, and may be known by its southern green slope; also from its proximity to St. Stephen's church, which has a remarkable sharp spire. The position of the flagstaff on the Mount is in lat. 50° 22′ N., long. 4° 10′ 15″, or 16m. 41s. west of Greenwich.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

A NEW DESCRIPTION OF GUN FOR GOVERNMENT.

The Mersey Steel and Iron Company of Liverpool have just completed two guns for the government of an entirely new design as regards shape. They are constructed of wrought iron, and manipulated by the tilt hammers. They are 9 feet 6 inches in length, and in shape are about double the thickness from the butt to the trunnions, where they suddenly taper to the muzzle. In weight they are about 4 tons 3 cwt., and although only 6½ inches in bore, they are intended for 100 lb. shot. They are evidently intended as an experiment, as the venting and sighting are to be completed at Woolwich. One of the guns has already been despatched. The external portion of them is highly polished, which in some measure shows the excellent texture and quality of the metal. It has been suggested that the government have been induced to give this order to the Mersey Steel and Iron Company from the fact that, at the testing of the 4½ inch wrought iron plates at Portsmouth, those sent by this company far exceeded in strength all the others, one plate having received 17 shots without any material injury.

ORDERS FOR NAVY SHOES.

The *Shoe and Leather Reporter* says that the contract to furnish the United States marine corps with 6,000 pairs of sewed bootees, more or less, was awarded for the current year to Henry Newton, of North Weymouth, Mass., at $1 87½ per pair. Our cotemporary adds:

This rate was much less than that of last year, which was $2 30. The standard is a high-cut sewed shoe, both upper and sole being made of oak-tanned leather. The rate of this contract was considered very low at the time; but the great decline in prices of all kinds of stock and work now makes it very remunerative. Mr. Newton employs about 300 men, and is turning out from 1,500 to 1,800 pairs of shoes per week.

The contract for low-cut shoes, for sailors' use, was awarded to a Philadelphia house, for one year from July 1, 1861. The rate we have not learned, but it was probably somewhat under that of the previous year, which was about $1 42. These shoes are all first-class, no others being accepted.

Great corruption has at times existed in the marine department, and third and fourth quality shoes have sometimes been used; but the efficiency of the present quartermaster of the marine corps, W. B. Slack, has remedied these evils.

THE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION OF 1862.

The ground is broken at Kensington towards erecting the series of buildings required for a great international exhibition to be held next year. A deed of guarantee upon the security of the names appended, to which the Bank of England will advance a quarter of a million of money for the necessary expenses, is in course of signature. It already bears the

names of persons who have made themselves liable for a sum of £243,000; others have yet to sign who will bring up the total to £383,000. The charter of incorporation has been issued, and in little more than twelve months from the present time we shall probably be in a position to announce the opening of the great exhibition of 1862.

The building for the display of 1862 differs in many essential particulars from its predecessor. It will be much larger, more commodious, much more imposing in its exterior, while from without its aspect will be of almost impressive magnitude and grandeur. Glass and iron are no longer to be the chief features in the design. Externally they appear only to be used where lightness with ornamental effect is needed; and, therefore, when they are introduced with these ends in view they are managed with a good taste and architectural effect which, viewing the design as a whole, makes it one of the most beautiful of the kind that has probably ever been reared. This remark as to the comparatively limited use of iron and glass of course applies only to the exterior. The inside, as heretofore, will be entirely fitted with iron columns and girders, but arranged in more gothic form and style, and with a keener view to picturesque effect than in 1851. The exhibition building of 1851 occupied in all nearly 23 acres; that about to be erected will cover a little over 26. The flooring space in 1851 was just short of a million feet. In the proposed building there will be 1,140,000, but, as it is intended to exhibit machinery and agricultural implements in a wing especially built for the purpose, the space occupied in 1851 by these classes will be at the disposal of the commissioners for other works, so that practically there will be some 500,000 feet of flooring more in 1862 than in 1851. The greatest height in 1851 was 160 feet, and the main nave running from end to end was 60 feet high by 72 wide. The greatest height of the proposed building will be 260 feet, and the nave will be 1,200 feet long by 85 wide and 100 feet high. The total length of the first exhibition building was 1,800 feet by 400 broad. The dimensions of the present are to be 1,200 long by 700 broad, exclusive of the space set aside for the display of agricultural implements, which is, in rough numbers, 1,000 feet long by 220 broad. The contractors' price in 1851 was £80,000; in this instance, £200,000, though in reality it will cost £300,000, but the payment of the extra £100,000 is conditional on the gross profits exceeding £500,000, as they did in 1851.

The building will be erected at Kensington, in front of the new grounds of the Horticultural Society, which they will enclose. Externally the building will be 1,200 feet by 700, though the ground plan shows that in some parts the width is diminished to 500 feet. The average height will be 100 feet, nearly 60 of which will be solid brickwork.

A Resolution relative to the exhibition of the industry of all nations, to be holden in London in the year eighteen hundred and sixty-two.

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the President be and he hereby is authorized to take such measures as shall to him seem best to facilitate a proper representation of the industrial interests of the United States at the exhibition of the industry of all nations, to be holden at London in the year eighteen hundred and sixty-two; and the sum of two thousand dollars is hereby appropriated for the incidental expenses thereof.

Approved July 27, 1861.

SUBSTITUTE FOR PLUMBAGO.

In a paper presented to the Royal Society by Professor CRACE-CALVERT, an interesting discovery was announced—that from cast-iron a substance is procurable which is a substitute for plumbago. The professor soaks cubes of cast-iron in weak acid—vinegar being the most suitable—until the iron is dissolved out and the carbon remains. By this process the cubes lose in weight, but not in dimension, and retain their form unaltered; but the quality is changed, and it is as easy to draw lines with one of them as with a lump of plumbago.

CALIFORNIA ACADEMY OF SCIENCES—COAL.

We learn from the *Mining and Scientific Press*, (California,) that a meeting of the members of the above institution was held in San Francisco on the 15th of May, at which Professor BLAKE gave an interesting description of the coal regions of Monte Diabola, accompanied with specimens of the coal. The veins are rather thin, but the coal is good bituminous. The fossils of the region belong to the tertiary formations.

Professor WHITNEY is of opinion that the coal was formed from accumulations carried by eddies and deposited in still water.

A considerable quantity of this coal has been taken to San Francisco, and it has tended to reduce the price of wood and the foreign coal. A plentiful supply of wood and coal in California would tend greatly to facilitate quartz-mining, by enabling the machinery to be operated by cheap steam power. Coal will also make California a great manufacturing State.

BORAX MINERAL.

Among the minerals found associated with the native copper of Lake Superior is one very hard and white, resembling marble, called "massive datholite," first noticed by Professor T. D. WHITNEY, in SILLIMAN'S *Journal of Science*, in 1859. It contains over 20 per cent. of boracic acid, and will, therefore, prove valuable for the manufacture of borax. Experiments recently made by Dr. KEEP, and repeated by Dr. HAYS, of Boston, prove that this mineral may even take the place of borax in many most important applications, without any previous chemical change. This might have been inferred from the fact that it contains nearly one-half as much pure borax as is found in the commercial boracic acid.

ALUMINUM IN GREENLAND.

The Edinburgh *Courant* states that two Danish vessels have sailed from Leith for Greenland, for procuring cargoes of cryolite—the mineral from which aluminum is obtained in largest quantities. Several very valuable minerals are obtained from Greenland. Plumbago is abundant in these regions; but the cryolite is the most important of Greenland's products, because aluminum is daily increasing in favor, as a most beautiful metal, capable of superseding silver for many purposes.

IRON PLATES FOR IRON-CLAD SHIPS.

An enormous furnace is erected, in which the iron is heated into a molten mass, and thence conveyed by steam-power in a truck on a tramway to the rollers, between which it is drawn out to the proper size and consistency. Previous to this, however, the metal has had to undergo an elaborate process. Originally each plate consists of 96 pieces, each about ½ inch thick, and these are welded together one after another till they form either two or four solid lumps. In this state they are put into the furnace, and when the plate finally comes out from between the rollers it is only 4½ inches thick. The power of resistance of such a dense mass of metal must be immense. Of course, the iron used is the very best. A plate of eight feet by six feet weighs about three tons.

The making of these plates has just been commenced in Sheffield, England, by Messrs. JOHN BROWN & Co., at the Atlas Steel and Iron Works, being the first manufacture of the kind in Sheffield. We understand that the plates were previously made at the Pargate Iron Works. Messrs. J. BROWN & Co. have been entrusted by the British government with a very large contract for the construction of these plates for the armor-clad war ships.

THE MAUVE AND MAGENTA COLORS.

This general term originates in the name of the inventor, Mr. W. H. PERKINS. In it are included Mauve, Magenta, Solferino, Azaleme, Roseine, Violine, Fuchsiacine, and those other beautiful varieties of color which are produced by our dyers in silk, wool or cotton.

We never before possessed any tint in which there was so much depth or intensity, with so little of that glare which becomes offensively obtrusive. The colors, too, are absolutely new; they are neither the rose, the violet, the peach, nor the blossom in which our mothers prided, but they are those with something superadded. The dyed surface has a power peculiarly its own, of separating two or more rays from the source of all color, light, and of sending them off in a most harmonious combination.

The Mauve and Magenta are permanent colors. Light does not bleach them; the weaker acids do not stain them; the color is dependent on the oxidation of the base of it; whereas, in nearly all other colors, the action of oxygen is to destroy the color.

CANADIAN TIMBER FOR FRANCE.

A contributor to the January number of the "*Annales Forestieres et Metallurgiques*," a Parisian magazine of a semi-official character, writing under the heading of "*Les bois de Canada*," speaks of the decline of the timber exports of Norway, and of the impossibility of obtaining from thence the wood necessary for manufactures in France, and says:

"Everybody knows that our former colony is, so to say, a vast forest of four thousand leagues square, possessing as means of transit magnificent lakes and rivers, and in which whole armies of wood-cutters, or 'lumber-

ers,' as they are called, cut down every year from eight to ten millions of cubic metres of timber, the greatest part of which is exported to the United States, and more particularly to England."

He goes on to argue in favor of exchanging for Canadian lumber the staple products of France, her wines, her porcelain, her silks, woollens and cottons, and above all, her "*tabacde-caporal*," which, he remarks, is "the delight of French Canadians."

THE TELEGRAPH IN PERSIA.

In a late number of a Persian newspaper called the *Vèkaya* we have an account of the opening of a telegraph line (MORSE'S) between Teheran, the capital of Persia, and Tabreez, on or near the Urumia lake, four hundred miles distant. It follows the route of caravans. The inauguration came off on the 21st of January last, on the esplanade of the imperial palace, in the presence of the young sovereign, NACIR EDDINE, all the dignitaries of the court and thousands of spectators. Questions were sent to Tabreez, and, when answered, the replies were repeated aloud amidst the joyous cries of the people and salvos of artillery. News that required twelve days ordinarily for transmission now came in a few minutes, much to the astonishment of the enthusiastic and wonder-loving Persians. This miracle has been brought about by the Minister of Public Instruction, who is the uncle of the Shah, and by the director of telegraphs, ALI-KOULI-VEKAN, both of whom were publicly honored on the spot with princely robes, India shawls, daggers ornamented with diamonds and the cordon of the lion. We presume our friend MORSE will in due time receive his share of the honors from NACIR EDDINE SHAH.

BASSWOOD.

In the United States, basswood is used to a considerable extent for seats of chairs, insides of drawers, parts of fanning-mills, and many other uses for which it is better adapted than almost any other wood. It is both light and strong, works easily and is not apt to split.

Basswood is one of the most abundant woods in Canada, but it has so far received little or no attention in commerce. The Quebec *Advertiser* urges that efforts be made to promote the export of basswood lumber, and also the manufacture for export of wooden-ware made from basswood.

In England a great business is carried on in the manufacture of white-wood ware, or Tunbridge-ware, and for such purposes, any wood which will "dry white" is used—the principal kinds being "chestnut"—*i. e.*, horse-chestnut, a very different wood from the common chestnut, (*castanea vesca*)—and lime, or, as we call it, basswood. Referring to this, our Quebec contemporary considers that a good business might be done in exporting this wood to England.

For use in wooden-ware this wood must not be exported in logs, as in that state it can only be employed for the upper timbers of houses, ships, etc. But it must be exported in the shape of boards, inch, half-inch,

and even as thin as the eighth of an inch, for veneering. The great object is to get the wood to dry white, and to secure this, it must be sawn quite fresh, and before the sap has had time to ferment, and thus discolor the wood. The boards are taken from the saw-mill or pit as fast as they can be cut, hung up under shelter from the rain, in an open shed, with a free draught of air, (not in piles,) until so thoroughly dry that there is not the least probability of their becoming mildewed. There would be still more profit to the Canadians if they themselves should convert their basswood into articles of wooden-ware, with which Canada probably could supply the world.

FRENCH SCHOOL OF ART.

The French Central School of Arts and Manufactures is a remarkable one, and deserves a notice at length. It is under the direction and patronage of the State, and requires three years attendance from each pupil. The conditions under which a youth is admitted are strict enough, and occupy four columns of the *Moniteur*. We imagine there is not a professor in the best of our colleges who could pass the requisite examination to enter this school, so extensive, minute and difficult is the programme. None but a most skillful algebraist, geometrician, (descriptive, analytic, &c.,) architect, mathematician, draughtsman, physiologist, physician, chemist, anatomist, understanding all the divisions of each branch of these sciences, (more than four hundred in number,) must write on these various subjects, and also be examined orally to the satisfaction of the examiners. The whole expense of tuition is seven hundred and seventy-five francs per annum, and foreigners as well as natives are admissible. The questions in chemistry alone would puzzle our best instructors, and as to physiology, we think a good many clever men would find it difficult to explain clearly and promptly the questions. Division of functions, absorption and exhalation, digestive apparatus, the chemistry and mechanism of digestion; apparatus of circulation, its mechanism; the lymphatics, the respiratory apparatus, its mechanism and chemistry, its phenomena, animal heat, (the theory of this not yet settled,) structure and functions of the principal glands, structure and functions of the nervous system, structure and functions of the organs of sense, the vocal apparatus, osteology, structure and chemical composition of the bones, their articulation; the skeleton, the muscular system, structure and functions; classification of the animal kingdom, divisions, special characters of mammals, birds, reptiles, fishes, insects, annalides and acephala; botany, roots, branches, leaves, flowers and fruits, and elucidations of the natural method of JUSSIEN, are some of the divisions of one branch of inquiry. And yet young men as low in years as seventeen are expected to afford the greatest number of applicants for admission to this very school. This subject is suggestive—very.—*N. Y. Evening Post.*

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE AND BOARDS OF TRADE.

Monthly Meeting of the Chamber of Commerce of New-York, Thursday, August 1st, 1861.

THE regular monthly meeting was held Thursday, PELATIAH PERIT, Esq., President, in the chair.

Mr. JOHN EWEN, President of the Pennsylvania Coal Company, and Mr. ROBERT H. MCCURDY, of No. 45 Park Place, were elected members of the Chamber.

In the absence of Mr. OPDYKE, Chairman of the committee appointed to wait upon Congress with the memorial passed at previous meeting, Capt. MARSHALL stated that he had a conversation with the Secretary of War, who said he had already sent his engineers to New-York to ascertain what was necessary to be done.

Ocean Mail Steamers.—Mr. DAVID OGDEN moved that the President be authorized to sign the following memorial:

To the Hon. MONTGOMERY BLAIR, *Postmaster-General of the United States:*

The undersigned, members of the Chamber of Commerce of the city of New-York, respectfully represent that it is highly for the interest of the commercial community of this city that the mails from this country to Europe be transmitted by the steamers of the Ocean Steamship Company, which make their passage in the shortest time and with the greatest certainty. They therefore respectfully request that the Postmaster-General of the United States will cause such mails to be transmitted by the steamers of whichever company is able to make the most expeditious as well as reliable mail service.

Mr. A. A. Low objected to the Chamber committing itself upon this subject, as the course suggested might prove very detrimental to our own steamers. It was by large subsidies from the British government that the CUNARD line was enabled to keep up the fastest ocean steamers, and it was their boast that they had driven off our steamers by such means. It was notorious that the fastest vessels could be run only by aid of government patronage. The effect of this resolution would be to throw the whole mail service into the hands of the British steamers, and to take off entirely American steamers, of which we had but very few, and they not well sustained.

On motion of Capt. MARSHALL, the memorial was laid on the table, to be taken up at a future day.

Revenue and Internal Tax Bills.—Mr. A. A. Low offered the following:

Whereas, The government of the United States is engaged in a contest for the suppression of rebellion and for the maintenance of the integrity of the Union, which is destined to make a large demand upon the pecuniary resources of the country, and the demand must chiefly be met by means of repeated loans:

Resolved, That in the judgment of this Chamber, the success of the proposed loans will depend upon the enactment by Congress now in session, of revenue and internal tax bills adapted to the existing emergency, or that of the government; or that if the government should succeed in procuring money without making wise provision for the reimbursement of principal and interest, it will be upon terms discreditable to the national name and prejudicial to the national interest.

It was in view of the reluctance of many members of the Senate to pass the tax-bill now before them that he (Mr. Low) offered his resolution. There seemed to be a much greater willingness to spend the public money than to be taxed for its repayment, and he hoped that this expression of opinion, going from the Chamber of Commerce, would stimulate Congress to pass a bill that would establish the national credit.

Mr. R. LATHERS approved of the motion, and wished to amend by appointing a committee of five to present the resolution, and aid Congress in the supervision of any bills before them for revenue and internal tax. In the hurry of legislation he feared that a great many crudities would be incorporated in the measures now before Congress. It was proposed to impose an income tax—a measure never resorted to, even in Europe, except as a last resort. He considered that that bill, as reported, would work a great injustice to the mercantile community, and to those who depended upon their salaries for a support, while (as evidently was intended) it would free the western lands and property generally in the interior.

Mr. ROYAL PHELPS doubted the policy of sending committees to Congress, except on important subjects, and such as were intimately connected with the business of the Chamber. When too frequently sent, they lost their force and were not well received.

Mr. LOW thought that if the Chamber could not give a free expression of opinion on subjects so important to commercial interests it had better disband. The Chamber of Commerce, representing the commercial community, should say to Congress that if they wanted an extraordinary amount of money, there must be some measure passed that looked to payment, and thus support conservative action on the part of the government.

Mr. JONATHAN STURGES hoped the resolution would pass for the purpose of encouraging Congress to enact the tax bill.

Mr. S. DE WITT BLOODGOOD said this was an eventful moment in our history, and we should live or die by our valor and money. With all respect for the gentlemen composing the government, he did not think they were more learned or careful than men not in the administration; nor did he think the exertions of the Chamber of Commerce would fall to the ground. He had studied its history, and always found that the merchants of New-York had been foremost in support of every project for the glory and interest of the country. Whether received well by politicians at Washington or not, New-York was the bank from which the money must come, and why should not those who were ready to sacrifice lives and fortunes be heard? He thought that the merchants ought to express themselves freely.

The amendment by Mr. LATHERS was lost, and the resolution by Mr. LOW was carried.

Mr. C. H. MARSHALL moved the following amendment:

Resolved, That, in the opinion of this Chamber, the tariff bill now under consideration of Congress should be framed so as to produce revenue only, and without regard to protection.

He thought that on many articles the duty was so great as to amount to a prohibition. Certainly such a tariff would diminish instead of increasing the revenue.

Mr. SAMUEL HOTALING opposed the resolution, stating that the great

productive interests of our country required protection and the fostering care of government, and it was difficult to draw a line between a tariff for revenue and one for protection. Any measure would be unhealthy which did not have in view the development of the manufacturing and agricultural resources of the country.

The resolution passed, and was ordered to be forwarded, together with Mr. Low's resolution, to Congress.

The Chamber then adjourned.

Special Meeting, Wednesday, August 7, 1861, of the Chamber of Commerce of New-York, for the reception of Hon. J. A. Wright, formerly Governor of the State of Indiana, and late United States Minister to Prussia.

The Chamber of Commerce, August 7th, gave a reception to Hon. Joseph A. Wright, of Indiana, late minister to the court of Prussia, which was attended by a large assemblage of members.

Pelatiah Perit, the president, occupied the chair, and introduced ex-Governor Wright, who was received with applause.

He said the Chamber of Commerce was known for its patriotic course all over the world. He had returned to his native land after an absence of four years. He belonged to an old school of politicians, who acknowledged only the sovereignty of the government. That government had protected him at home and abroad, and to it he owed his allegiance. This was no time to talk politics or criticize administrations. The sole question now is, "How shall the government be preserved?" The government is misrepresented abroad, and our institutions are attacked by the foreign press, influenced by mercenary men. The heart of Germany, he said, was slow to move, but when the popular heart was really enlisted in a subject, there was no people more efficient in aiding a cause. All through Germany he had found a strong feeling in favor of this country. He had received not less than five hundred letters from different persons desiring to come to the United States to help them, and he had to put up over his door that he did not keep a recruiting office. After a four years' residence, he had come to the conclusion that the German government was making faster strides toward free institutions than any other in Europe, and that they look to the condition of our national Union probably with a deeper interest than any other country.

The speaker continued: I do not think I am going out of my position by mentioning that when I left his majesty, the King of Prussia, his last words to me were these: "*God grant that you may be able to sustain the laws and the institutions of your country.*" That is the sentiment of the German nation. Do not misunderstand me. From the connection of that government with the other governments of Europe, you must not look for them to lead off before others. There is a jealousy in the governments of Europe against us. You may have other enemies to fight than those of your own country. Be not too cheerful; this contest for human liberty and for the principles of your fathers will meet with enemies abroad, under one name and another. All I can say is, that we have got to help ourselves if we expect others to help us. If you expect

any enlightened aid from the governments of Europe, you have got to show firmness, energy and victory in this country.

If, in my intercourse with foreign goverments, I have learned any one fact, it is this, that, as I have been taught from my childhood, and as we are so fond of repeating but often overlook, that in our union is our strength. You know that in the government of Prussia there has been some difficulty in reference to the protection of American citizens from impressment into the army, but always when their release was asked as American citizens they were given up. But no sooner had these difficulties come on than I received information every day of the impressment of these men. But when the month of May came around and showed the union of the loyal people of this country, then I could see the feeling rising there, as plainly as the mercury in a thermometer might be seen to rise, that there was a government on this side of the water for which they had a respect. It is within the last few months that the law was made, that the government would claim no control over a person who should be absent from that country ten years, though he returned. I name these things to show that in our union consists our strength.

After these remarks permit me to say, that if we desire or expect encouragement or aid from the goverments of Europe we have got to show them that we have strength at home. You may conceive my mortification when I received the news of what was supposed to be our disaster in Virginia. I believe there is not a government of Europe that has had a contest with her own people that has not been beaten at the first battle. I have surveyed the whole ground, and have come to the conclusion that this calamity has been sent us that we may know where is our weakness and where our strength. I regard it as calculated to nerve and incite our people to powerful efforts in behalf of the government, and to show us where our real danger is. You may ask me the question, What is to be the result of this? What is our duty? You have called me here—you must take my opinion. I speak as an American citizen; you may take it for what it is worth. The Southerners may say, as ABRAHAM said to LOT, "Let there be no strife between us, between my herdsmen and thy herdsmen; turn thee to the right or left, as it pleaseth thee." I apprehend old ABRAHAM would never have given this advice to LOT had he interfered with his household, and attempted to tear down the ark of the covenant.

We say now, Give us back the government of our fathers, put back the old flag upon the forts, let the laws have supremacy, and then we will talk about going to the left or to the right; then we will hear; but we will hear nothing from those who are attempting to pull down the pillars of the temple that was reared by our fathers. You may ask, What will be the result of this? How is it our duty to act? I know one thing I can do. I go home to fill my place as a Western man. I go home forgetting every thing but my country. I go home saying, as I say to you, that we ought to be willing to suffer and lose millions of money and many lives, sooner than submit to this infamous slander of the so-called president of the Confederate States, that your fathers and mine formed a confederation of States to be broken up at the word of disappointed politicians, without self-preserving power in the government. I belong to that class of men that have been taught from childhood—and if there is any thing I believe it is this—that we never can be two peoples—we are one or we are nothing.

I believe we can never have peace except as one people. I am willing to give my voice and means, and the influence of whatever position I may be placed in, to maintain the supremacy of the Constitution and the laws of the country, and I shall not ask, What is to be the result of this? when I see my country divided, and when I see an effort made to destroy this government, the only hope of humanity.

Mr. President, I have witnessed, during my absence abroad, the effect of this secession movement, and I never have believed, in the midst of all these difficulties, that there existed any serious division among the people of this country, when left to themselves, in relation to the principles of our government. We talk of the United States flag, and I have seen many incidents showing the love of its countrymen for it; but a scene that most touched me was one in the city of Berlin, where a dying mother, with an infant at her breast, when her husband and child were before her, said, as a last request, "Bring me the flag and wrap it around me, that I may die in it." Do you tell me of a people that have this love and respect for their flag, that you can crush out this love by any mercenary motives? You may say, standing by the wayside, I have lost all I have in the world; you have lost nothing if you have your government; your property, your wife, your children are nothing in comparison with your country, the hope of humanity every where. Do not tell me you have lost your thousands; give it all freely, as you have done, to your credit.

You are known every where for your liberality, and our three hundred thousand men will never come back until this government is sustained, unless this is the merest myth of a government that ever existed. To sustain that flag let your money, your capital, be pledged; and continue to show the stability, the sternness, the decision that the association you so worthily represent has shown. Let consequences take care of themselves. As has been well said, "One man right, and heaven on his side, will whip the world." It is a majority for one man to be right. We know we are right; we know our path of duty; we know every step we have to take, and, with steady nerve, all we have to do is to march on, until we shall establish the laws of this country and sustain the supremacy of our institutions. I am willing to celebrate the anniversary of my country, the Fourth of July. I am willing to hold in reverence many days bright in our calendar, but a brighter day will be that when we have peace in our country. But pray God let it be a permanent peace; let it be a peace established upon principles, and never may it come at the sacrifice of the principles of our fathers.

On motion of Mr. GALLATIN, a vote of thanks was passed to Governor WRIGHT for his able and patriotic address.

Most of the members were then introduced to Mr. WRIGHT, after which the meeting dispersed.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.

OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

LONDON, *August* 3, 1861.

THE chief topics of moment during the past month in this metropolis have been the war in America, the new loan for India, the bank rate of discount.

The directors of the Bank of England, at their meeting, August 1st, reduced their *minimum* rate of discount from 6 per cent., at which it was fixed on the 16th May, to 5 per cent. This reduction had been generally anticipated, from the large amount of gold daily sent into the Bank, the reduced price of money and its abundance in the open market, and the generally inactive state of trade. The movement, therefore, produced no effect on the value of the funds. The joint-stock banks have reduced their interest on deposits to 4 per cent., (at the London and Westminster, 3 per cent. on sums below £500,) and the discount houses to 4 per cent. for money at call, at 4½ with seven days' notice. The inquiry for money at the reduced rate has been somewhat more active. Some of the leading discount houses are charging 5 per cent., but other establishments are taking first class bills at 4½ and 4¾. The rate of interest now adopted by the Bank is the same as prevailed in April (five per cent.) and November, 1860, when the bank reserve of bullion was much larger than it is now. There has been a gradual reduction in the bullion fund from eighteen millions sterling, at the close of the year 1858, to £12,196,000 at this date. In the year 1859, this reserve ranged from £18,560,000 at the opening, to £16,250,000 at the close; the rate of interest at both periods being 2½ per cent. In the year 1860 the range was from £15,350,000, at the opening, gradually down to £12,580,000, at the end of December; the rate of interest rising in the mean time from 3 to 6 per cent., and Consols falling from 95 to 92½ in the London market.

Notwithstanding the conservative management of the Bank of England, the Bank of France has, during the same period of three years, exhibited a stronger position, viz.:

	BANK OF ENGLAND. *Bullion.*		*Rate of Disc.*		BANK OF FRANCE. *Bullion.*
1858, December,	£18,920,000	....	2½	....	£21,030,000
1859, April,	17,640,000	....	3½	....	21,750,000
" July,	17,940,000	....	2½	....	22,400,000
1860, January,	15,880,000	....	3	....	21,370,000
" April,	14,640,000	....	5	....	21,410,000
" November,	13,310,000	....	5 and 6	....	17,830,000
" December,	12,650,000	....	6	....	17,260,000
1861, February,	11,570,000	....	8½	....	15,114,000
" August,	12,196,000	....	5	....	15,500,000

While the London rates of discount range from 4½ to 5 per cent., on the Continent money is much cheaper, as may be seen by the following quotations from nine cities:

	Bank Rate of Discount.	*Open Market Rate.*
Paris,	5 per cent.	4½ per cent.
Vienna,	6 "	5¼ "
Berlin,	4 "	2½ "
Frankfort,	3 "	2 "
Amsterdam,	3 "	3 "
Turin,	5 "	5 "
Brussels,	3 "	3 "
Hamburg,	. "	2¾ "
St. Petersburg,	7 "	.. "

The British Board of Trade returns for the month of June, 1861, show that the exports of home produce and manufactures for the month were again upon a much larger scale than could have been expected, reaching £10,362,893, which is more by 12 per cent. than in the same month of last year, though less by 3 per cent than in June, 1859. For the first six months of the present year the total has been £60,143,425, being only 3 per cent. less than last year, and 4 per cent. less than in 1859. The export trade with the United States is shown to be now completely paralyzed; but the falling off in that direction is fully compensated by an increase in other quarters. With regard to imported commodities it appears that the arrivals of grain, although excessively large, were not quite so heavy as in the preceding month. Their value, including all descriptions, may be estimated at upwards of £3,500,000, while that of the May importations was about £4,000,000. During the first six months of the year, the returns for which are now completed, our importations of grain of all kinds have amounted to about £21,000,000, against about £9,500,000 in the corresponding half of 1860. As respects the consumption of other articles of food and luxury, the figures for the month of June show a falling off under every head except those of cocoa and wine.

The exports of British and Irish produce and manufactures for the month and for six months of three years have been as follow:

	Month of June.	*Six Months.*	*Average.*
1859,	£ 10,665,891	£ 63,003,159	£ 10,500,526
1860,	9,236,454	62,019,986	10,336,664
1861,	10,362,893	60,143,425	10,023,904

The British navigation accounts show that 929,055 tons of shipping entered British ports during the month with cargoes, against 831,379 tons in the corresponding period of last year. Of 378,637 tons under foreign flags, 130,278 tons belonged to the United States, showing, however, a decrease under the stars and stripes as compared with 1860. The increase took place under the British, Swedish, Norwegian, Prussian, Hanseatic and Greek flags. Of the total tonnage entered 182,155 tons, irrespective of nationality, arrived from ports of the United States, the next largest amounts of tonnage being from Russia, India and Canada. Of 1,027,076 tons cleared outwards, with cargoes, 145,806 tons cleared for French ports, the next largest amounts of tonnage having cleared for Baltic and North Sea ports, India and the United States. The coasting trade shows 1,429,964 tons of shipping entered inwards with cargoes,

including their repeated voyages, about one-third of the whole being engaged in the intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland.

An official statement lately published of the value of the exports from the twelve principal ports of the United Kingdom during the past year shows the relative progress or retrogression in the trade of each. The aggregate increase is 4 per cent. over 1859, but some ports figure for a more considerable augmentation, and others exhibit a falling off. The export trade of London presents an increase of a ¼ per cent.; Liverpool, 4¾; Hull, 11¾; Bristol, 7¼; Southampton, 6½; Leith, 18, and Glasgow, ¼. Newcastle has been stationary. The ports that show a diminution are, Dublin, 24 per cent.; Cork, 18½; Greenock, 48, and Belfast, 92. The totals of the two latter, however, in 1859, were exceptionally heavy, and the present falling off is merely a return to about their ordinary amount. Subjoined are the exact returns:

Declared value of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures exported from the respective ports to Foreign Countries and British Possessions abroad in the years,

	1859.	1860.		1859.	1860.
London,...	£30,235,924 ..	£30,837,688	Glasgow,.	£5,394,376 ..	£5,406,410
Liverpool,.	62,414,341 ..	65,419,732	Greenock,	1,106,268 ..	572,702
Hull,.....	12,980,587 ..	14,487,676	Dublin,..	48,270 ..	22,192
Bristol,....	457,553 ..	491,192	Cork, ...	168,252 ..	136,698
Newcastle,.	1,906,514 ..	1,903,488	Belfast,..	141,175 ..	10,283
S'tham'ton,	2,499,369 ..	2,662,076			
Leith,.....	872,673 ..	1,030,680	Ag'regate,	£118,225,302	£122,980,817

Manchester is uneasy under the present prospect of the cotton supply. The secession movement in your States finds some sympathy among manufacturers here, but the tone of public sentiment, both in London and throughout England, is clearly with the Northern States. Mr. JOHN BRIGHT, M. P. for Birmingham, addressed a public meeting at Rochdale on the 1st inst., when, in the course of his remarks, he alluded to the cotton supply question and to the civil war in America, expressing the most profound sympathy with our transatlantic kinsmen in their efforts to maintain the Union and enforce constitutional law. Such views, from a man of his prominence, have great weight. Toward the close of his remarks he said, in reference to recent propositions in England to violate the American blockade in consequence of its reported inefficiency:

"Now, recollect what breaking the blockade means. It means a war with the United States; and I don't think myself that it would be cheap to break the blockade, at the cost of a war with the United States. I think that the cost of a war with the United States would give, probably, half wages for a very considerable time, to those persons in Lancashire who would be out of work if there was no cotton, to say nothing at all of the manifest injustice and wrong against all international law, that a legal and effective blockade should be interfered with by another country. It is not exactly the business of this meeting, but my opinion is, that the safety of the products on which this country depends rests far more on the success of the Washington government than upon its failure; and I believe nothing could be more monstrous than for us, who are not very averse to war ourselves, to set up for critics—carping, cavilling critics—of what the Washington government is doing. I saw a letter the other day from an Englishman, resident for 25 years in Philadelphia, a merchant there, and a very prosperous merchant. He said, "I prefer the institutions of this country (the United States) very much to yours in England;" but he says also, "If it be once admitted that here we have no country and no government, but that any portion of these United States can break off from the central government whenever it pleases, then it is time for me to pack up what I have,

and to go somewhere where there is a country and a government!" If the 33 or 34 States of the American Union can break off whenever they like, I can see nothing but disaster and confusion throughout the whole of that continent. I say that the war, be it successful or not, be it christian or not, be it wise or not, is a war to sustain the government and to sustain the authority of a great nation; and that the people of England, if they are true to their own sympathies, to their own history, and to their own great act of 1834, to which reference has already been made, will have no sympathy for those who wish to build up a great empire on the perpetual bondage of millions of their fellow-men."

The differences in the market price of cotton, on the first of this month, as compared with the same period of 1856 to 1860, are shown as follow:

Cotton.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Upland, fair,.....	6⅛ ..	8¼ ..	7¼ ..	7¼ ..	6¼ ..	8¼
Upland, good fair,	6⅞ ..	8⅜ ..	7⅜ ..	7⅜ ..	7¼ ..	8⅜
Pernambuco,.....	7 ..	9¼ ..	8¼ ..	9⅛ ..	9⅛ ..	9¼

So that, notwithstanding the reduced supply, prices are now about the same as in 1857. The sales of cotton for the week are 70,000 bales, of which 49,000 are to spinners, 12,000 to speculators, and 9,000 bales for export. Under the influence of alarming news from America, the sales of the preceding week amounted to the enormous quantity of 144,000 bales; of which the spinners took 87,000 bales.

There is at last a decided fall in the stock of cotton at Liverpool, the diminution, though long foreseen, not having previously been at all considerable. This will be seen on reference to the subjoined table, which commences with the month of April, when the American blockade was first threatened:

	1861.	1860.		1861.	1860.
Stock.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Stock.*	*Bales.*	*Bales.*
April 5,....	942,330	906,040	June 7,....	1,148,650	1,358,630
May 3,....	990,690	1,016,630	July 5,....	1,108,300	1,298,490
" 24,....	1,111,510	1,200,730	" 12,....	1,102,600	1,227,990
" 31,....	1,151,010	1,295,570	" 19,....	1,053,710	1,287,520

In the sixteen weeks over which these figures extend the stock has thus been augmented to the extent of 11,380 bales, while at the same period of 1860 it increased to the extent of 381,480 bales. Last year's was, however, a heavy crop in the United States, and but for the uncertainty attending the future, the stock now in hand would be considered sufficient for all practical purposes. The stock was made up in the following proportions in the first and last weeks embraced in the return:

	Stock, April 5. *Bales.*		*Stock, July 19.* *Bales.*
American,.....	790,570	....	798,660
Surat,.....	95,040	....	187,740
Brazil,.....	16,590	....	22,310
Egyptian,.....	37,600	....	43,570
West Indies, &c.,.....	2,530	....	1,430

The Jamaica Cotton Company have, we understand, directed a quantity of Egyptian seed to be forwarded to Jamaica immediately, having learned from their agent that the peasantry there are extremely anxious to plant cotton with their provisions, but find it difficult to get sufficient seed, so much has been planted. He states that in three weeks' time he has cleared and planted forty acres of cotton, and corn with it, and

fenced in, for planting, six hundred acres—the last at an expense of only £1. He pays 6d. and 9d. a day for women, and 1s. per day for men, and has had to turn away hundreds who applied for work. A gentleman who has been for many years a cotton planter in the Southern States gives the price of a day's labor for a slave, when hired out, 75 cents, or about 3s. 2d. per day; whereas, in Jamaica, the average cost is 1s.

Grain Market.—The aggregate value of the grain importations of the first half of the present year may be estimated at £21,000,000, against £9,500,000 in 1860. Of this total, about £14,500,000 represents wheat and flour—our importations of which, in the same period of 1860, were below £3,000,000. In 1859 France sent us our chief supplies, and contributed about as much as Russia, Prussia and the United States combined, while, from America, the amount was merely nominal. In 1860 Prussia took the lead, Russia was second, and the quantity from France was insignificant. This year America has distanced all other countries, and has sent us nearly as much as Prussia, Russia and France combined—the quantity from the latter being less even than in 1860.

The monthly grain circular from Odessa, under date July 19th, says: "The arrivals of wheat from the interior have continued, during the whole month of June, to be very large, but the condition is unfortunately not much improved. Before these can be made fit for shipment, the products of the new harvest will arrive, and there is no doubt that they will depreciate the value of the old."

The reduction of the wine duty in Great Britain has hitherto proved a great success, the consumption averaging about 1,000,000 gallons per month, against 600,000 gallons at the old duty. It was anticipated, and very reasonably, that the introduction of claret and other light wines at a duty of 1s. per gallon, while sherry, port, Marsala, &c., paid 2s. 5d., would create an enormous demand for these wines; but the public appear pertinaciously to adhere to their former tastes, and of a total of 5,400,000 gallons cleared in the five months ending 31st May, only 570,000 represents those wines cleared at the duty of 1s.; it is therefore clear that hitherto common French and German wines have not made much impression.

Trade in France is still dull. There is no demand except for articles wanted for immediate use, and there is consequently much uneasiness prevailing among the manufacturing population. This state of things is attributed to the cessation of foreign orders, particularly from the United States. The harvest prospects are not satisfactory. Flour is one franc per sack higher in Paris. Accounts from Bordeaux state that the vineyards present a magnificent appearance. The grape is filling, and the crop will be abundant, except in those districts injured by the frost. The loss, however, is not so great as it was represented by interested speculators. The plethora of capital in France is evidenced by the fact that the applications for £6,000,000 French railway debentures last week amounted to ninety-five millions sterling. The total allotted to the public is £3,700,000, and the remaining £2,300,000 is allotted to claimants with exclusive rights. The Paris correspondent of the *Times* says: "Accounts from the manufacturing districts state that French manufacturers in general are severely affected by the suspension of their relations with the United States since the civil war broke out there. They have, in consequence, reduced their hours of labor, much to the loss of their opera-

tives. The manufacturers have adopted this prudent measure, fearing that one of the effects of the civil war will be that many houses in the great towns of America may think it advisable to suspend payment. On the other hand, the Paris papers, which are supposed to represent the sentiments of the government, assert that trade in France has revived considerably within the last three months."

The *Journal de Cherbourg* states, that it is contemplated to establish a stragetic railway along the coast, so as to make it possible to transport a large body of troops to any part of the coast where the enemy might attempt to land. The paragraph proceeds: "By means of the electric semaphore telegraph, which already encircles our coast, the movements of the enemy may be instantaneously made known to the naval arsenals; the establishment of such a railway would complete the system of defence, and protect our coast against a *coup de main*.

An important commercial treaty between England and France has gone into effect this year. Treaties with other powers are in contemplation. The treaty of commerce between Great Britain and Turkey, which is to come into operation on the 1st of October, has been laid before Parliament. Turkish produce and manufactures purchased by British subjects are to be liable to no duty except an export duty of 8 per cent., diminishing annually by 1 per cent., until it be reduced to a fixed *ad valorem* duty of 1 per cent., to cover the general expenses of administration and control; and the produce and manufactures of Her Britannic Majesty are not to be subject in Turkey to any duty beyond an import duty of 8 per cent., but the import of tobacco or salt is prohibited. There is to be no differential duty on British shipping. The duty of 3 per cent. now levied on articles passing through Turkey by land to other countries is to be reduced to 2 per cent., and after eight years is to be merely 1 per cent. to defray the expenses of registration. No charge is to be made on British produce or goods in British ships passing through the Straits. The "most favored nation" clauses are inserted.

Punch omits no opportunity for a *drive* at a friend or an enemy. He says: "We doubt if the slowest of slow coaches would ever be able to arrive at any satisfactory conclusion as to whether the Galway Steam Packet Company has made less way in the public estimation with its Lever or its (S)crew."

We have received from the custom-house authorities at Canton, through H. T. Davies, of Shanghai, returns of the trade of Canton for 1860. The following is a summary of the whole:

General Imports.

First half-year, 1860, ...	$8,819,760 at 4s. 6d.	= £2,094,693
Second " "	9,592,967 at 4s. 8½d.	= 2,259,050

General Exports.

First half-year, 1860, ...	$5,579,112 at 4s. 9d.	= £1,325,039
Second " "	10,678,511 at 4s. 8½d.	= 2,513,899

The trade is carried on by 66 British vessels, with a tonnage of 36,028; in 25 American vessels, aggregate tonnage, 20,236; in 46 sundry vessels, tonnage, 16,898; and in river steamers and lorchas.

The London fire insurance offices have adopted their new scale. In many cases it is higher; the rate for each of the docks, for instance, having been raised from 3s. 6d. to 10s., and for general floating policies

from 10s. 6d. to 35s. per cent. These terms, however, are subject to reductions, in the event of certain requirements being complied with for the improvement of risks, and which are modeled very much on those compulsory at Liverpool. It is stated that in London, while the average of premiums on dock and warehouse policies has been 5s. 6d. per cent., the average of losses has been 12s. 8d. per cent. The increased scale applies to ships in port.

The suspension has been announced of Messrs. ROCCA BROTHERS, an old and well-known mercantile firm, with establishments in London, Naples, Marseilles, Odessa and Genoa. The house has been for two or three months in liquidation, but up to the present time all its engagements had been regularly met. Another failure in the Australian trade is announced, the firm being that of Messrs. W. J. & H. MILLER, of Cannon-street, London. The stoppage has been caused by that of their house at Melbourne, Messrs. MILLER BROTHERS. The liabilities are probably not less than £50,000.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

BUSINESS OF THE MONTH.—IMPORTS.—EXPORTS.—EXPORTS AND PRICES FOR JULY.—RATES OF MONEY.—SPECIE.—SPECIE SHIPMENTS.—BANK MOVEMENT.—THE NEW TARIFF OF AUGUST, 1861. —EXTRAORDINARY INFLUX OF SPECIE.—LOW RATES OF FOREIGN BILLS.—HEAVY RECEIPTS OF FLOUR AND GRAIN.—COMPARATIVE PRICES.

THE war movements of the month of July continue to affect business operations throughout the country at large. The imports for the month of July at this port were only one-sixth of those for the corresponding month of 1860, while the foreign exports of domestic produce continue large.

The leading feature of the month has been the negotiation of one hundred and fifty millions in behalf of the Treasury Department. This was done through a convention held between the 10th and 17th instants, of the banks of the cities of New-York, Philadelphia and Boston.

The following plan "for assisting the United States Government" was unanimously adopted:

SECTION 1. An immediate issue to be made by the United States Treasury Department of Treasnry notes, dated August 15th, 1861, bearing interest from that date at 7.30 per cent., to the extent of fifty millions of dollars.

SEC. 2. The banks of New-York, Boston and Philadelphia associated to take jointly this fifty millions at par, with the privilege of taking at par an additional fifty millions October 15, by giving their decision to the department October 1; and also at par fifty millions December 15, by giving their decision December 1, unless said amount shall have been previously subscribed as a national loan. It being understood and agreed, that no other Government stocks, bonds or treasury notes (except treasury notes payable on demand, and the Oregon War Loan,) shall be negotiated or paid out by the government until February 1, 1862, should the associates avail of both privileges, or until December 15, 1861, should they avail of the first only, or until October 15, 1861, if they take but the present fifty millions—except that the government may negotiate in Europe, or through subscriptions to the national loan.

The capital of the banks of New-York, Boston and Philadelphia, and the respective proportions under a *pro rata* division, would be as follow:

	Bank Capital.	*Pro rata proportion of 50 millions.*
New-York,	$ 70,000,000	.... $ 29,500,000
Boston,	38,000,000	 15,500,000
Philadelphia,	12,000,000	 5,000,000

It was proposed and finally agreed that the division should be—

To New-York,	$ 35,000,000
To Boston,	10,000,000
To Philadelphia,	5,000,000

All the banks of this city promptly ratified the agreement; and subsequently those of Boston and Philadelphia assented. The ability of these institutions, with sixty-five millions of specie, to sustain this important movement, is unquestioned. It is obvious that the money which the government receives is to be spent at home, and thus will not disturb the foreign exchanges. It is to go out at once into the general circulation of the country, in payment for services and merchandise; and, paid to one man, it passes quickly to others. The movement by which it is set in motion is simply a mercantile undertaking on a vast scale, which is to be confined to our own limits, and to give to our own people all its advantages. Indeed, this is peculiarly true so far as New-York and New-England are concerned; for such is the amount of supplies which must be drawn hence, and the number of our troops now in the field, that the amount expended by the government at the North is likely to more than equal what is raised here. These considerations, coupled with the fact that the balance between Boston and New-York, is heavily in favor of the latter, are sufficient to answer all doubts, as to the ease with which our banks can undertake an operation to the extent of one-fourth of their capital and one-sixth of their loan.

The strength of the New-York Banks is indicated by the following summary:

1861.	*Loans.*	*Specie.*	*Circulation.*	*Deposits.*	*Weekly Clearings.*	*Sub-Treasury.*
Jan. 5,	$129,625,465	$24,839,475	$8,698,283	$86,454,430	$ 95,994,868	$ 3,645,500
Feb. 2,	121,907,024	31,054,509	8,099,376	87,879,743	122,138,525	4,328,000
Mch. 2,	121,893,963	34,480,407	8,290,755	89,635,298	126,728,832	9,166,030
Apl. 6,	122,113,496	41,705,558	8,930,141	94,859,810	123,277,671	8,486,494
May 4,	124,610,166	38,054,254	9,296,399	94,977,381	106,413,316	9,761,752
June 1,	118,290,181	37,502,402	8,683,780	90,197,459	88,847,249	11,468,789
July 6,	112,134,668	45,630,025	8,862,799	90,579,753	88,313,230	4,616,620
Aug. 3,	111,719,111	46,226,181	8,585,574	92,229,384	81,415,525	6,738,059
Aug. 17,	108,717,434	49,733,990	8,521,426	92,046,308	80,172,670	4,380,239

We annex the ruling rates for business paper at this date, as compared with the last week in April, May and June:

	May 22. per cent.	*June 24. per cent.*	*July 24. per cent.*	*Aug. 24. per cent.*
Loans on call, State stock securities,	5¼ @ 7	5 @ 6	5 @ 6	4 @ 5
" bond and mortgage,	8 @ 9	6 @ 7	6 @ 7	6 @ 7
Prime endorsed bills, 60 days,	7 @ 10	6 @ 7	5 @ 6	6 @ 7
First-class single signatures, 4 to 6 months,	8 @ 10	8 @ 12	7 @ 9	9 @ 10
Other good bills,	10 @ 12	12 @ 15	9 @ .	. @ . .
Names less known,	15 @ 30	no sale.	no sale.	no sale.

The new features of the tariff went into operation from the time of its passage. We give the bill entire, for the benefit of our readers, in this number, pages 235–256. The following section, we fear, will give trouble

in some cases, in discriminating between goods shipped on board the same vessel before and after the 5th day of August, when the tariff was passed:

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted,* That all goods, wares and merchandise actually on shipboard and bound to the United States, and all goods, wares and merchandise on deposit in warehouses or public stores at the date of the passage of this act, shall be subject to pay such duties as are provided by law before and at the time of the passage of this act.

The imports for July from foreign ports show a total of only $3,191,920 dutiable goods entered directly for consumption; and, including seven millions of specie and three millions of free goods, the aggregate for the month is less than fifteen million dollars.

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW-YORK IN JULY, 1858–1861.

ENTERED.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
For consumption,.....	$14,013,659 ..	$21,681,460 ..	$18,759,905 ..	$3,200,663
For warehousing,.....	2,949,166 ..	3,943,374 ..	4,462,475 ..	1,769,636
Free goods,.....	1,506,027 ..	1,486,147 ..	1,594,918 ..	2,972,054
Specie and bullion,...	36,895 ..	175,139 ..	64,351 ..	6,996,498
Total entered,.....	$18,505,747 ..	$27,286,120 ..	$24,881,649 ..	$14,938,851
Withdrawn,.....	3,164,538 ..	2,595,063 ..	3,593,993 ..	6,622,454

The official tables show that the foreign imports at this port, exclusive of specie, since January 1st, are only $85,891,561, against $141,847,307 for the same period of last year, and $155,149,912 for the same period of 1859. In this connection it will be interesting to compare the progress of the trade during the last seven months with the same period in former years, in regard to other particulars, and for this purpose we have separated the receipts of foreign dry goods from the imports of general merchandise:

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW-YORK FOR SEVEN MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST, 1858–1861.

ENTERED.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
For consumption,..	$50,334,179 ..	$113,511,023 ..	$98,705,594 ..	$35,191,920
For warehousing,..	15,185,419 ..	23,209,758 ..	25,377,377 ..	30,441,676
Free goods,.....	12,955,525 ..	18,429,131 ..	17,765,566 ..	20,257,965
Specie and bullion,	1,815,258 ..	1,301,082 ..	751,188 ..	32,906,166
Total entered,...	$80,290,381 ..	$156,450,994 ..	$142,599,725 ..	$118,797,727
Withdrawn,.....	25,076,502 ..	14,110,784 ..	17,909,650 ..	25,996,550

The extraordinary feature as to specie exceeds any previous period in the history of this country. The dry goods for the past seven months are very limited, although the import of general merchandise is less than in the year 1858:

Relative Imports of Dry Goods, Specie and General Merchandise at New-York for the first Seven Months of the last Eleven Years.

Seven Months of	*Imports of Dry Goods.*	*Imports of Gen'l Mdse.*	*Imports of Specie.*	*Total Imports.*
1851,.....	$42,240,217 ..	$43,174,714 ..	$1,480,476 ..	$86,895,407
1852,.....	34,994,294 ..	37,215,342 ..	2,028,248 ..	74,237,884
1853,.....	57,421,619 ..	59,393,895 ..	1,099,516 ..	117,915,030
1854,.....	55,308,993 ..	58,126,642 ..	1,606,090 ..	115,041,725
1855,.....	34,724,393 ..	49,008,832 ..	523,151 ..	84,256,376
1856,.....	60,296,946 ..	72,757,795 ..	963,500 ..	134,018,241
1857,.....	66,716,293 ..	84,156,030 ..	5,857,310 ..	156,729,633
1858,.....	30,169,358 ..	48,305,765 ..	1,815,258 ..	80,290,381
1859,.....	71,782,984 ..	83,366,928 ..	1,301,082 ..	156,450,994
1860,.....	63,362,687 ..	78,485,850 ..	751,188 ..	142,599,725
1861,.....	31,515,606 ..	54,375,955 ..	32,906,166 ..	118,797,727

The cash duties received at the port of New-York, during the month of July, have been less than for the same period of previous years; they are reckoned, of course, upon the goods thrown on the market. We annex a comparative summary:

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW-YORK.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
In July,	$3,387,305	$4,851,243 89	$4,504,066 04	$2,069,590 86
Previous six mos.,	11,089,112	19,512,181 99	18,339,679 30	10,585,334 95
Total since Jan. 1,	$14,476,418	$24,363,428 88	$22,843,745 34	$12,654,925 81

The exports show some very singular changes. The most noticeable features are, of course, the great increase in shipments of produce, and cessation in shipments of specie. During no month of the year has this been more noticeable, although we are now comparing with a period of last year when the exports of produce on a large scale had commenced, and were rapidly assuming very large proportions:

EXPORTS FROM NEW-YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF JULY.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Domestic produce,	$4,771,962	$4,938,065	$7,525,713	$9,552,789
Foreign mdse., (free,)	70,463	380,782	232,552	203,325
Foreign mdse., (dutiable,)	277,419	232,527	140,949	260,866
Specie and bullion,	2,801,340	10,051,019	6,563,985	11,020
Total exports,	$7,921,829	$15,602,393	$14,463,199	$10,028,000
Total, exclusive of specie,	5,119,844	5,551,374	7,811,214	10,016,980

The movement of produce from the interior continues to be very large. The receipts at tide-water of the principal articles of produce, from the opening of the canals to and including the 14th of August, have been as follow:

	1859.		1860.		1861.
Canal open,	April 15.	....	April 25.	....	May 1.
Flour, bbls.	209,796	....	372,980	....	523,852
Wheat, bush.	696,003	....	4,480,923	....	11,811,333
Corn, "	1,392,881	....	7,642,394	....	8,060,289
Barley, "	147,194	....	75,913	....	187,420
Oats, "	2,347,931	....	3,547,727	....	2,595,028
Rye, "	99,146	....	121,967	....	387,984

The returns from other lines of improvement would probably show an equally favorable result.

The receipts of foreign gold and silver, and of gold from California, at New-York, and at Boston for New-York account, since January 1, are about as follows:

Foreign gold entered at New-York,		$33,365,000
Foreign gold entered at Boston,		7,396,000
California gold at New-York,		22,250,000
Total income of gold since January 1,		$63,011,000

Against same time in 1860:

From California,	$21,691,000	
From abroad,	751,000	
		$22,442,000
Increased receipts since January 1,		$40,569,000

The shipments of domestic produce for the past seven months are more than double those for the same period of 1858 and 1859.

It is somewhat remarkable that the comparative exports for seven months in each of the last three years foot up about the same, but are made up of very different items. In 1859, forty-three millions of specie were included; in 1860, twenty-eight millions; while in 1861, only three millions of specie have been exported during the whole seven months.

EXPORTS FROM NEW-YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR SEVEN MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Domestic produce,.....	$33,352,354 ..	$33,373,647 ..	$46,281,575 ..	$71,030,228
Foreign mdse., (free,)...	853,024 ..	1,765,100 ..	1,860,424 ..	1,888,654
Foreign mdse., (dutiable,)	2,557,844 ..	1,021,890 ..	3,325,061 ..	3,699,329
Specie and bullion,.....	15,161,455 ..	43,248,991 ..	28,143,737 ..	3,260,458
Total exports,.....	$51,924,677 ..	$80,409,628 ..	$79,610,797 ..	$79,878,669
Total, exclusive of specie,	36,763,222 ..	37,160,637 ..	51,467,060 ..	76,618,511

With this heavy influx of gold it is obvious that the foreign exchanges remain at a low price, as in May, June or July. The following were the current rates at the dates named:

	May 22.	*June* 24.	*July* 24.	*August* 24.
London, bankers' bills,....	105¼ @ 106¼	105¼ @ 105½	107¼ @ 107½	107¼ @ 107½
Do. mercantile bills, ..	105 @ 106	104¼ @ 105	105½ @ 106¼	106 @ 107¼
Do. with bills of lading,	103¼ @ 104¼	102¼ @ 104	104¼ @ 105¼	105 @ 106
Paris, bankers' bills,.....	5.45 @5.25	5.40 @5.37	5.30 @5.27½	5.40 @5.27
Amsterdam, per guilder,...	39 @ 40	39 @ 39¾	40¼ @ 41	39¾ @ 40¼
Bremen, per rix dollar,....	77 @ 78	75¼ @ 76¼	77¾ @ 78	76 @ 77
Hamburg, per marc banco,.	35 @ 35¾	34¾ @ 35¼	35¾ @ 36	35 @ 35¾

Prices of certain Articles of Domestic Produce at New-York on the 1st of August, in each of the last five years.

BREADSTUFFS.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Flour, stand. sup. bbl.,..	$ 6.45 ..	$ 4.10 ..	$ 4.90 ..	$ 5.10 ..	$ 4.05
Wheat, wh. west., bush.,	.. ..	1.12 ..	1.15 ..	1.35 ..	1.20
Wheat, red west., "	1.65 ..	1.10 ..	1.00 ..	1.25 ..	1.12
Wheat, Chic. spg., "	1.38 ..	85 ..	75 ..	1.17 ..	87
Wheat, Mil. club, "	1.45 ..	95 ..	.. ..	1.23 ..	95
Rye, bush.,.....	1.12 ..	80 ..	77 ..	81¼ ..	47
Corn, mixed west., bush.,	90 ..	91 ..	80 ..	62 ..	45
Cotton, mid. up., per lb.,	15¼ ..	12⅝ ..	12¼ ..	10¾ ..	16
NAVAL STORES.					
Spirits turpentine, gall.,	45¼ ..	44 ..	45¼ ..	38 ..	81
Rosin, common, bbl.,....	1.85 ..	1.52½ ..	1.75 ..	1.45 ..	3.94
PROVISIONS.					
Pork, mess, bbl.,.....	24.25 ..	17.50 ..	15.25 ..	19.12½ ..	16.00
Pork, prime, bbl.,.....	19.50 ..	14.12½ ..	10.87½ ..	14.25 ..	10.75
Beef, repacked west., bbl.,	16.50 ..	13.00 ..	12.00 ..	10.00 ..	9.75
Butter, State, per lb.,....	20 ..	18 ..	18 ..	18 ..	11
Cheese, State, per lb.,...	9 ..	7½ ..	8 ..	10 ..	6
Lard, prime, per lb.,....	15½ ..	11⅞ ..	10¾ ..	13¾ ..	9
Rice, per 100 lbs.,.....	5.50 ..	3.50 ..	4.00 ..	4.62½ ..	5.75
Sugar, fair, refined,.....	9⅛ ..	5⅛ ..	6¼ ..	6⅝ ..	5⅛
Wool, med. fleece, lb.,...	46 ..	40 ..	45 ..	46 ..	..
Whiskey, gall.,.....	31¼ ..	25 ..	25¼ ..	21 ..	16¼

Prices have changed materially on some articles during the month; thus, flour and grain are a little higher; cotton is two cents higher, and spirits turpentine and rosin have made a very rapid upward movement. The export orders for breadstuffs continue, the most active demand for wheat being for the Continent.

THE

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AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

Established July, 1839.

EDITED BY

J. SMITH HOMANS, (SECRETARY OF THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF THE STATE OF NEW-YORK,)

AND WILLIAM B. DANA, ATTORNEY AT LAW.

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☞ *Notices of New Books are in type, but necessarily deferred till the October No.*

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

OCTOBER, 1861.

SEA AND UPLAND COTTON vs. FLAX AND HEMP.

Cotton is found growing naturally in the tropical regions of Asia, Africa and Armenia. It is distinguished in commerce by its color, and the length, strength and fineness of its fiber. White is usually considered characteristic of secondary quality. Yellow, or a yellowish tinge, when it is natural, is usually considered as indicating great fineness. There are many varieties of raw cotton, but they are usually classed under the denominations of long and short stapled. The best of the first is considered the Sea Island, the product of Georgia. A small quantity of very superior cotton has been imported into England from New South Wales.

The manufacture of cotton has been carried on in Hindostan from the remotest antiquity. The manufacture obtained no footing worth mentioning in Europe till the last century. The rapid growth and prodigious magnitude of the manufacture of cotton in Great Britain are, beyond all question, the most extraordinary phenomenon in the history of industry. When the manufacture commenced in England the material was obtained from Hindostan and China, where the inhabitants had arrived at such perfection in spinning and weaving that the lightness and delicacy of their finest cloths imitated the web of the gossamer, and seemed to set competition at defiance. Such has, however, been the stupendous discoveries and inventions as to overcome these difficulties, as well as the cheapness of labor in Hindostan. The precise period when the manufacture was introduced into England is not known, but it is probable that it was the early part of the seventeenth century. Authentic mention of it is made in sixteen hundred and forty-one, (1641.) From the first introduction of cotton into Great Britain, down to 1773, the weft, or transverse threads of the web only, were made of cotton—the warp or longitudinal threads consisting wholly of linen yarn, imported from Germany and Ireland. Prior to seventeen hundred and sixty, (1760,) weavers

were dispersed in cottages throughout the country, and furnished themselves as well as they could with the weft and warp for their webs, and carried them to market when they were finished. The Manchester merchants, at this period, began to send agents into the country, who employed weavers, whom they supplied with foreign Irish linen yarn for warp and with raw cotton, which, being carded and spun by means of a common spindle and distaff, in the weaver's own family, were then used for wefts.

The entire value of cotton goods manufactured in Great Britain in seventeen hundred and sixty, (1760,) is estimated at only two hundred thousand pounds a year, but in sixteen hundred and sixty-seven, (1667,) the spinning jenny was introduced, by means of which eight threads were spun with the same facility as one; and, subsequently, a little girl was enabled to work no fewer than from eighty to one hundred spindles. By the spinners' frames, afterwards introduced, a thread of sufficient fineness was produced to answer for the longitudinal threads for warp. Since seventeen hundred and eighty-five, (1785,) the progress of improvement in every department for the manufacture of cotton has been most rapid. The estimated amount of the cotton crop of the United States, after and including 1832, are—

	Pounds.		*Pounds.*
In 1821,.....	110,940,000	In 1827,.....	285,120,000
" 1822,.....	121,485,000	" 1828,.....	213,840,000
" 1823,.....	136,125,000	" 1829,.....	255,780,000
" 1824,.....	152,880,000	" 1830,.....	292,040,000
" 1825,.....	169,860,000	" 1831,.....	311,655,000
" 1826,.....	211,680,000	" 1832,.....	296,245,000

The lowest average price in England during this period was in 1831, 5⅝ pence, and the highest in 1825, 11½ pence. Previous to 1790 the United States did not supply the English market with a single pound of cotton; so says Mr. McCULLOUGH, whose authority there is no reason to question in so far as Upland cotton is concerned, but there appears to have been shipments of a superior quality of Sea Island cotton prior to this date. This will account for what appears to be a discrepancy between Mr. McCULLOUGH and the Congressional reports found at the American Institute. According to these last, the first arrival of cotton at Liverpool from the United States was—

January 20th, 1785,..... one bag.
May 4th, 1786,..... two bags.
Total during the year,..... six bags.
Total during the year 1787,..... one hundred and eight bags.
Total import from 1785 to 1790, one thousand four hundred and forty-one bags.

After the termination of the American war the cultivation in Carolina and Georgia succeeded so well, that it now forms the principal staple production of the United States. The cotton gin, according to McCULLOUGH, was invented by WHITNEY in 1793, and has done for the planters what the genius of ARKWRIGHT has done for the manufacturers, and that at present (1835) the export of cotton from the United States exceeds 300,000,000 pounds a year.

The cotton product of the United States in 1764 was 1,200 lbs.

In 1794,..... lbs.,	1,601,700	In 1804,..... lbs.,	38,118,041
" 1814,.....	17,806,479	" 1824,.....	142,369,663
" 1834,.....	413,928,240	" 1843,.....	792,297,106

In 1842 the product of the United States is given in bales at 1,683,174, and in 1843, 2,378,875. (*U. S. Doc.*) The estimated product of the United States for the year 1859 was 3,400,000, and for 1860, 4,600,000 bales. The average weight of a bale of cotton is assumed to be 470 pounds. The actual result of the year 1860, however, showed the product to have been but 4,000,000 bales.

The MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE for May, 1861, gives the estimated cotton crop in 1820 at 425,000 bales; in 1830, at 870,415; in 1840, 2,177,532; in 1850, 2,796,706; in 1860, 4,600,000 bales.

Congressional reports show the United States exports of cotton to have been in—

1821,..	124,893,405 lbs. ..	average cost per lb.,	16 2-10c. ..	value,	$ 20,157,484
1822,..	144,675,096 " ..	" "	16 6-10 ..	"	24,035,058
1823,..	173,723,270 " ..	" "	11 8-10 ..	"	20,445,520
1824,..	142,369,663 " ..	" "	15 4-10 ..	"	21,947,401
1825,..	176,449,907 " ..	" "	20 9-10 ..	"	36,846,649
1826,..	204,535,415 " ..	" "	12 2-10 ..	"	25,025,214
1827,..	294,310,115 " ..	" "	10 ..	"	29,359,545
1828,..	210,590,463 " ..	" "	10 7-10 ..	"	22,487,229
1829,..	264,837,186 " ..	" "	10 ..	"	26,576,311
1830,..	298,459,102 " ..	" "	9 9-10 ..	"	29,674,883
1831,..	276,979,784 " ..	" "	9 1-10 ..	"	25,269,492
1832,..	313,215,122 " ..	" "	9 8-10 ..	"	31,724,682
1833,..	324,698,604 " ..	" "	11 1-10 ..	"	36,191,105
1834,..	384,717,909 " ..	" "	12 8-10 ..	"	49,448,402
1835,..	387,358,992 " ..	" "	16 8-10 ..	"	64,961,302
1836,..	423,631,367 " ..	" "	16 8-10 ..	"	71,284,925
1837,..	444,211,537 " ..	" "	14 2-10 ..	"	63,240,102
1838,..	595,952,297 " ..	" "	10 3-10 ..	"	61,556,811
1839,..	413,624,212 " ..	" "	14 8-10 ..	"	61,238,982
1840,..	743,991,061 " ..	" "	8 5-10 ..	"	63,870,307
1841,..	530,204,100 " ..	" "	10 2-10 ..	"	54,330,341
1842,..	584,717,017 " ..	" "	8 1-10 ..	"	47,593,464
1843,..	792,297,106 " ..	" "	6 2-10 ..	"	49,119,806
1844,..	668,633,455 " ..	" "	8 1-10 ..	"	54,063,501
1845,..	872,905,996 " ..	" "	5 92 ..	"	51,739,643
1846,..	547,558,055 " ..	" "	7 81 ..	"	42,767,341
1847,..	527,219,968 " ..	" "	10 34 ..	"	53,415,848
1848,..	814,274,431 " ..	" "	7 61 ..	"	61,998,294
1849,.	1,026,602,269 " ..	" "	6 4-10 ..	"	66,395,967
1850,..	635,381,604 " ..	" "	11 3-10 ..	"	71,984,616
1851,..	997,237,089 " ..	" "	12 11 ..	"	112,315,317
1852,.	1,093,320,639 " ..	" "	8 05 ..	"	87,965,732

Treasury Department,
Register's Office, Jan. 5, 1853.

N. SARGENT, *Register.*

This much has been said in reference to cotton, as preparatory to the consideration of the articles of flax and hemp, more particularly the former, to which public attention has been more particularly directed by the transpiring events of the day.

"Flax, (Ger. *Flachs;* Du., *Vasch;* Fr., *Lin;* Ita. and Sp., *Lino;* Rus., *Len, Lon;* Pol., *Lin;* Lat., *Linun,*) an important plant, (*Linun usitatissimum,*) was at one time an article of considerable export from the

United States, and may be again profitably raised for its seed without further reference to the use of the stalk.

"In 1790 the quantity of the seed exported amounted to 312,000 bushels. For twenty years previous to 1816 the average annual exports were 250,000 bushels. The smooth, rich prairie land of the West afford an excellent opportunity for raising flax to any extent; and since linseed is an article that bears exportation so well, many thousand acres might be cultivated to advantage, especially as the crop might be pulled by machinery, or, if the seed is the only object, it might be cut with like facility." (*U. S. Doc.*) The estimated hemp crop of the United States in 1844 was 22,800 tons.

Flax is an important plant, and has been cultivated from the earliest ages in Great Britain and many other countries, its fibers being manufactured into thread and its seed crushed for oil. The principal sorts of flax imported into Great Britain are Petersburgh, Narva, Riga, Rivel, Liebau, Memel, Oberland and Dutch flax. It comes in bundles of twelve, nine and six heads. The Riga flax seems to deserve the preference, and is imported from the Baltic. It is the growth of the provinces of Maninberg, Druania, Thusenhausen and Lutherama. Flanders or Dutch flax is well-dressed, and of the finest quality. Flax is extensively cultivated in Egypt of late years; some of the Italian ports, which used to be supplied from Russia, have been supplied on lower terms from Alexandria. New-Zealand flax is said to exceed every other species in strength of fiber and whiteness, qualities which, if it really possesses them in the degree stated, must make it particularly fitted to be made into canvass and cordage. It has been obtained, within these few years, at second hand, from Sidney and Van Dieman's Land, the imports from them amounting, in 1831, to 15,725 cwt. Attempts are now being made, but with what success remains to be seen, to raise it in Great Britain.

When flax is brought to the principal Russian ports where it is shipped, it is classified according to its qualities, and made up by sworn inspectors, appointed by the government for the assortment of that and all other merchandise. These functionaries are said to perform their task with laudable impartiality and exactness. A ticket is attached to every bundle of assorted flax, containing the names of the inspector and owner, the sort of flax and the period when it was selected and inspected.

Good flax should be of a fine, bright color, well separated from tow codilla or coarser part of the plant, and of a long, fine and strong fiber. In purchasing flax it is usual to employ an agent wholly devoted to this particular business.

Of 936,411 cwt. of flax and tow imported into Great Britain in 1831, 623,231 cwt. was from Russia, 128,231 cwt. from the Netherlands, 101,721 cwt. from Prussia, 55,324 cwt. from France, 1,415 cwt. from Italy, 15,276 cwt. from New South Wales, &c. Almost the whole of the quantity was retained for home consumption.

Flax seed contains a great deal of oil, which it yields by expression, and is cultivated either that it may be used in sowing, or sent to crushing mills to be converted into oil. The quantity of the crop depends much on the seed employed; a good deal of care is requisite in selecting the best; generally speaking, it should be chosen of a bright brownish color, oily to the feel, heavy and quite fresh. Dutch seed is in the highest estimation for sowing; it not only ripens sooner than any other that is

imported, but produces larger crops, and of the quality that best suits the principal British manufactories. American seed produces fine flax, but the produce is not as large as from the Dutch seed. British seed is sometimes used instead of Dutch, but the risk of the crop misgiving is so much greater that those only who are ignorant of the consequences, or who are compelled from necessity, are chargeable with this act of ill-judged parsimony. Crushing seed is principally imported from Russia, but considerable quantities are also brought from Italy and Egypt. Of the 758,128 bushels of linseed imported into Great Britain in 1831, 221,702 were brought from Russia, 172,099 from Prussia, 106,244 from the United States, 105,448 from Italy, 98,847 from Egypt, 53,738 from the Netherlands, &c.

Hemp is supposed to be a native of India, but long since naturalized and extensively cultivated in Italy and many countries in Europe, particularly Russia and Poland, where it forms an article of primary importance. It is stronger and coarser in the fiber than flax, but its uses, culture and management are pretty much the same. When grown for seed it is a very exhausting crop, but when pulled green it is considered a clearer of the ground. In England its cultivation is not deemed profitable, so that, notwithstanding the encouragement it has received from government and the excellent quality of English hemp, it is but little grown, except in some few districts of Suffolk and Lincolnshire. The quantity raised in Ireland is also inconsiderable.

From what precedes, the great expansion of the cotton product of the United States appears to have been after the year 1829. Prior to 1820, if not to a still later period, the flax product was deemed of more importance than cotton. Flax was manufactured by the families that produced the plant, in their own houses, and it furnished them with table-cloths, bed-linen, and under garments and outer clothing in summer. Prior to 1810, if not later, the raw cotton furnished the country merchants in the towns on the North River and back, was the East India, by way of England to New-York. It was very imperfectly cleaned of its seed, and packed in large bags without being pressed. The common retail price of this cotton was 2*s.* 6*d.*, or 31¼ cents per pound. It was used for bats for quilts and dresses, and spun into yarn for mops. At that period a coarse muslin was also imported from the East Indies, and sold in the country towns above referred to, at the like price of 31¼ cents per yard. The same article might to-day command some 4 or 5 cents per yard for book covers or like purposes. At that period there was but a single store for the sale of domestic cotton goods in the city of New-York, and, as far as known, but one manufacturer in the United States; this was a Mr. Slater, of Rhode Island, who produced a superior fabric of this description of goods. They were sold by William F. Mott, who is still living, then doing business in Pearl-street, near Peck Slip. Public attention for the last few years has been again directed to the article of flax, and, from present indications, it would seem that it is again to occupy an important place in the productions of the country, and equal, if not exceed in value and importance, the cotton product of the United States. By the simple application of steam, at a pressure of some two hundred pounds to the square inch, the gummy or resinous matter is separated, and afterwards removed from the fiber of the plant, together with the woody substance, and a product as soft and delicate as cotton is the result, better adapted

than it to a vast variety of uses for which cotton is now used. The invention is calculated to work a revolution in flax as great in magnitude, if not greater, than has been effected by the cotton gin in cotton, and eventually to clothe the world in linen, clean and white, for there is evidently no limit to the production of the plant in almost any part of the world. The prairie lands of the great West are more particularly adapted to it, and to these the public attention is particularly directed, where almost the entire labor can be performed by the use of machinery.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

Commission Merchants—Consignee's Advances on Bills of Lading—Bill of Sale.

Bill of Lading.—The action of Dows & Cary *vs.* Greene & Mather, is one that has been in our New-York State courts for a long time. We first find it reported in 16 Barb., 72, and now it comes up again in a new form and will be found reported in the last volume of Barbour, (32 Barb., 490,) where some important questions are discussed and decided.

The *plaintiffs*, Dows & Cary, were, it seems, commission merchants in New-York, and claimed title to a quantity of corn (to recover which this action was brought) as *bona fide* purchasers or lien-holders thereof for value, from a person by the name of J. F. Mack, (an alleged purchaser of the corn from Niles & Wheeler, a forwarding firm at Buffalo,) the said plaintiffs, as consignees of the corn, having in good faith made advances upon the bill of lading given by said Niles & Wheeler to Mack. The *defendants*, Greene & Mather, also claimed this corn through parties who had obtained title from this same firm of Niles & Wheeler *after* they (Niles & Wheeler) had repudiated the sale to Mack, as unauthorized by them, and also as fraudulent. The following were the facts proved:

Facts.—Niles & Wheeler were forwarders, at Buffalo, as is stated above, and agents of the American Transportation Line of canal boats, which line was owned by them and Mr. M. Caleb, of New-York, a partner of theirs in the forwarding business. Niles & Wheeler also purchased and sent corn to market on their own account.

The plaintiffs claimed the corn under certain bills of lading executed at Buffalo, dated August 7, 1848, by Niles & Wheeler per E. H. Walker, their clerk and agent, showing the shipment of the corn to account of J. F. Mack, care of plaintiff, New-York. The form of the several instruments herein called bills of lading is given in the case, and one of them, that on which the plaintiffs rely to recover, is as follows: "No. 143, duplicate. Buffalo, August 7, 1848. Shipped, in good order, by Niles & Wheeler, agents, on board canal boat Neptune, —— master, American Transportation Line, the following named articles, made

and consigned as in the margin, to be delivered as addressed without delay. Account J. F. MACK, care of DOWS & CARY, N. Y., 2,385 bushels corn. Ohio freight to New-York, per bushel, 13 cents. NILES & WHEELER, per E. H. WALKER." By a subsequent bill of lading the quantity was corrected and stated at 2,565 bushels of corn.

MACK resided at Rochester, and was a dealer in grain. JAMES L. BLOSS resided at Rochester, and had for several years been purchasing grain in his own name, but in fact as the agent for other persons and by their direction. He had, for five or six months previous to the transaction in question, been making such purchases as the agent of MACK, and had received the money promptly in each instance. In transactions of this kind he had asked for duplicate bills of lading, and the vendors had given the bills before the delivery of the property and before receiving payment. They had trusted to his honor and the integrity of the man at Rochester to send the money, and it had always come.

NILES & WHEELER had purchased a cargo of about 10,000 bushels of corn, which was on board the propeller MONTEZUMA, lying near their warehouse at Buffalo.

On Monday, the 7th of August, 1848, BLOSS called at the office of NILES & WHEELER, and proposed to purchase the corn, intending it for MACK, but did not mention the fact that he was acting as an agent. The negotiation was between BLOSS and NILES; the price asked was forty-four cents per bushel, and BLOSS said he would take the corn if he could have a little time to get money from Rochester, and gave a reference for certainty of payment.

NILES said he wanted no reference, as they would only sell the corn for cash. BLOSS thereupon left the office, but was immediately called back by the order of NILES, when the negotiation proceeded. NILES asked where BLOSS wished to transport the corn, and on being answered to New-York, he said they could, perhaps, make arrangements if he (NILES) could transport the corn. It was finally agreed that half the money should be paid on Friday, and the remaining half on Saturday, and that NILES & WHEELER should transport the corn to New-York in their boats at 13 cents per bushel. NILES said he would not sell on credit to anybody; that he would hold the corn on his boats until it was paid for, and such was the arrangement between them.

BLOSS said NILES would be indemnified by the property itself, as he (BLOSS) would not get possession of it until it was paid for. BLOSS immediately telegraphed to MACK, advising him of the purchase of the corn, mentioning quantity and price, and on the evening of the same day BLOSS received the bill of lading before referred to, executed in the name of NILES & WHEELER, by WALKER, their clerk. He had before made out some bills of lading, and evidence was given tending to show his authority, and also that NILES was present when he made out the bills of lading. The defendants gave evidence tending to show that WALKER had never signed such bill of lading before, but only bills where the goods shipped belonged to other persons and not to NILES & WHEELER. WALKER made a distinction between receipts for property and memoranda of shipment, (such as he claimed these to be,) and regular bills of lading. The corn was shipped in the boats CUBA, NEPTUNE, P. B. LANGFORD and A. BEARDSLEY. The loading was commenced, according to BLOSS, on the

same day, (Monday, 7th August,) and, as BLOSS thinks, was completed as to two boats, (CUBA and NEPTUNE,) the same day.

VAN INWEGAN, the tally clerk, says the loading of the NEPTUNE was commenced on Monday, and completed on Tuesday or Wednesday, and the CUBA started first, on the 9th, (Wednesday,) and the NEPTUNE on the 10th, (Thursday.)

The evidence left the time of lading in some doubt. On Monday, the day of purchase, BLOSS got the tally of the cargo of the two boats, (CUBA and NEPTUNE,) and delivered them to the office of NILES & WHEELER, about six or seven o'clock in the evening, and received from WALKER, their clerk, bills of lading of the two boats.

BLOSS sent the bills of lading to MACK the same day, informing him that the corn was to be paid for on Friday or Saturday. The plaintiffs had been at Rochester on the 5th or 6th of August, and had agreed with MACK to make advances to him on corn, to thirty-eight cents per bushel, on his furnishing shipping bills for the corn.

The business was to be done on the part of the plaintiffs by JAMES CHAPPELL, their general agent at Rochester. MACK was to furnish the shipping bills to CHAPPELL, who was to endorse MACK's drafts on the plaintiffs for the amount of advances, which the plaintiffs were to accept and pay. Advances to MACK in the same way had been made before. On Tuesday, the 8th of August, MACK presented to CHAPPELL the two bills of lading, (CUBA and NEPTUNE,) and drew two bills on the plaintiffs, one for $1,000, for thirty days, and one for $800, at twenty-five days, both payable to the order of CHAPPELL, and both endorsed by him, on receiving the bills of lading, and the drafts were delivered to MACK. MACK passed and negotiated the drafts to the Rochester City Bank, and received the money therefor. On the same day CHAPPELL enclosed the shipping bills to the plaintiffs in New-York. The two drafts were presented for acceptance by the American Exchange Bank, and accepted by the plaintiffs on the 10th of August, (Thursday,) and were paid at maturity. On Friday, the 11th of August, BLOSS sought NILES, and told him that he had sent shipping bills of the corn to Rochester to MACK, for whom he had bought the corn; that he had not received the money, and did not know what the matter was; that he had never been disappointed in receiving money, but had previously received it promptly in every instance.

NILES said this was the first he had heard of MACK or of shipping bills, and he should sell the corn. BLOSS asked him to wait till he could telegraph MACK and get an answer, and BLOSS did telegraph him several times, without getting any answer. He then proposed that NILES or his clerk should go with him to Rochester, saying he would pay the expenses, and get the money or give up the corn. NILES said that VAN INWEGAN (his clerk) might go, and he went that day with BLOSS to Rochester, where BLOSS found that MACK had failed and left town on Thursday. On that day, the 10th of August, MACK made a general assignment of all his property to JOHN BROWN, preferring him to the amount of about $10,000, and distributing the residue of his property equally among the rest of his creditors, among whom NILES & WHEELER were named as creditors, for corn sold, to the amount of about $4,400. On Saturday VAN INWEGAN telegraphed NILES that the corn was not paid for, and MACK had run away. NILES then sold the corn to

P. DURFEE & Co. at Buffalo. DURFEE & Co. consigned the corn and delivered the bills of lading to ARTHUR H. ROOT. ROOT transferred them to JOSEPH H. GREEN, JR., the latter to GREEN & MATHER, and they to L. W. BRAINARD; and under these parties the defendants claimed to hold the property, and, on demand made, refused to deliver it to the plaintiffs.

On Saturday afternoon NILES went to Rochester; went up the canal on Sunday, and met three of the four boats, and gave them new bills of lading, on account of P. DURFEE & Co., care of ARTHUR H. ROOT, Albany. The CUBA had passed Rochester before he got there. He sent a bill after her to be signed, which seems to have been done. The boats had all left Buffalo with bills of lading to M. M. CALEB & Co., New-York. On Friday, the 11th of August, when NILES was informed of the bills of lading to the plaintiffs, he telegraphed them as follows:

"Ten thousand and ninety bushels of corn, shipped by us on boats CUBA, NEPTUNE, A. BEARDSLEY, P. B. LANGFORD, acc't J. F. MACK, to DOWS & CARY, is not paid for. We notify you to consider and hold the same to our account, till further notice.

"NILES & WHEELER."

There was a mistake in the amount of the corn as stated in the first bills, and this was corrected on Wednesday. When the NEPTUNE arrived at Albany the plaintiffs demanded the corn of the defendants, and offered to pay the freight, the defendants then having possession thereof; but they refused to deliver it, and denied the plaintiffs' right to the corn.

The plaintiffs proved by BLOSS, in addition, that the bills of lading were made out by WALKER, he having been referred to by some apparently responsible man in the office as the proper man for that purpose; and that, as he thinks, NILES was present in the office when he made out the bills of lading; and that subsequently, when the fact was again talked over, NILES made no objection on the ground of want of authority. The bills of lading were in the hands of BLOSS, at Buffalo, on the 9th of August. CARY, one of the plaintiffs, saw them there, and having looked at them, handed them back to BLOSS, who then mailed them to MACK, at Rochester, who delivered them to CHAPPELL'S clerk, receiving from him therefor two drafts of MACK on the plaintiffs, payable to the order of and endorsed by CHAPPELL, one for $1,000 and one for $800, which MACK procured to be discounted at the Rochester Bank. The bills of lading were immediately sent by CHAPPELL'S clerk to New-York, where they were accepted by the plaintiffs on the 10th of August, and subsequently paid by them at maturity, some twenty-five or thirty days thereafter.

Decision.—The opinion of the court is of considerable length, but we do not deem it necessary to reproduce it here. The following, however, were the points decided:

I. That the plaintiffs' title, if otherwise valid, (being prior to the defendants' in point of time,) must prevail. The question, therefore, is as to the plaintiffs' title.

II. That the bill of lading given BLOSS was good in matter of form.

III. That it was properly executed, and that it went into the possession

of BLOSS lawfully, and the plaintiffs made advances upon it in good faith, relying upon the bill of lading as evidence of ownership, and without notice of any facts justifying the conclusion that BLOSS was not the real owner, or that any fraud was meditated or had been committed in the purchase of the corn.

IV. That the plaintiffs' title to the corn is good, *notwithstanding* MACK *may have intended a fraud in acquiring possession of the goods, and purchased with a preconceived intention not to pay.*

These are the propositions discussed and decided by the court in the published opinion. As to the correctness of at least the last point, (IV.,) there must be, we think, considerable doubt; and we certainly cannot consider it to be a true exposition of the law until it is held to be such by our Court of Appeals. In a similar case, (DOWS *vs.* PERRIN, 16 *N. Y. Reports*, 325,) the Court of Appeals have stated that a bill of lading is *not* such a negotiable commercial instrument as to confer upon a *bona fide* transferee a title not affected by the fraud committed in obtaining it. This was, to be sure, a mere *dictum* in that case, and yet we believe the proposition to be correct, and think the court will reaffirm it whenever the question comes properly before them. A bill of lading has never been held to be negotiable in the sense that a bill of exchange or promissory note is. The extent to which our courts have gone is this: "That the right of stoppage *in transitu* is cut off by the transfer of the bill of lading to a *bona fide* purchaser." For instance, if A. should purchase for cash of B. a boat-load of corn, and A. should fail while the corn was being transferred, B. could retake the corn. But if B. had given a bill of lading, and this bill had been transferred to a *bona fide* purchaser, then A. would have no right to retake the corn, although it had been sold to B. for cash, and B. had failed without making the payment. The right of stoppage *in transitu* would in that case be cut off. This, however, is, we believe, the very extent our courts have or will go towards making a bill of lading negotiable. Where such a bill is void on account of *fraud*, the holder certainly cannot confer a better title than he himself has; it is void in the original holder's hands, and is void also in any one's hands (whether *bona fide* holder or not) to whom it may be transferred. The "*right of property*" must be in the one who obtains the bill of lading, before he can, by any transfer or endorsement of the bill, confer a title to the goods as against the true owner. So where the bill is obtained by fraud, the "right of property" is not, of course, obtained with it, and cannot, therefore, be passed over to any other party by a transfer of the bill. For these reasons we believe the conclusion (IV.) of the court in the above case is incorrect, and will be so held when the question is passed upon by our court of last resort.

BILL OF SALE.

The recent case of SCHENCK AND OTHERS *vs.* SAUNDERS, reported in 13 *Gray* (*Mass.*) *Reports*, 37, was an action to recover the value of sundry cases of boots and shoes. The *plaintiffs* were commission merchants and manufacturers of boots and shoes, under the firm of SCHENCK, WOOD & POND, having their principal place of business in New-York, but were accustomed to put out stock to different persons in the States of New-York, Connecticut and Massachusetts, to be manufactured into

boots and shoes. On the 11th of April, 1856, they made with CHARLES HOWE, of Farmingham, Mass., a written agreement in these words:

"The said SCHENCK, WOOD & POND, of the first part, agree to furnish stock, consisting of upper and sole leather and linings and findings, of sufficient amount to make at least eight and not to exceed twenty cases per week. And the said CHARLES HOWE, of the second part, is to take the stock and make it up, to the best of his abilities, into women's boots; and further agrees, to consign all the goods he makes to the said SCHENCK, WOOD & POND, of the first part, to be sold by them on a commission of five per cent., the goods to be sold for cash, and the returns made to the said CHARLES HOWE as fast as made. And the said CHARLES HOWE, of the second part, agrees to put up and ship to the said SCHENCK, WOOD & POND, at their store in New-York, at least eight cases of boots per week, each case containing sixty pairs, commencing the first week in May, 1856."

It was proved, on behalf of the plaintiffs, that certain leather and stock, suitable to be made into boots and shoes, were delivered by them to HOWE, and by him made up into the boots and shoes now in controversy, and taken to Boston and delivered to the defendant for certain advances made HOWE by the defendant, as stated below; that the defendant refused to deliver them up on demand made by plaintiffs, but sold them and applied the money to his own use.

The *defendant* was an auctioneer and commission merchant at Boston. He contended, on the trial, that the property in the stock delivered by the plaintiffs to HOWE, under the above contract, passed to HOWE, and introduced evidence tending to show that whenever the plaintiffs sent stock to HOWE, they sent him, within a few days afterwards, bills (not signed by the plaintiffs) in this form:

BOOT, SHOE AND LEATHER WAREHOUSE. *New-York, May, 15th,* 1856.

Mr. CHARLES HOWE, bought of SCHENCK, WOOD & POND, Manufacturers and Commission Merchants, No. 25 Beekman-street. Terms, 6 months.

52 sides sole leather, B. A., 644, 26¼,.....	$170 66
Inspection and cartage,.....	90
	$171 56

Evidence was also introduced by the defendant, tending to show that when HOWE brought the boots and shoes now in controversy to the defendant in Boston, he showed the defendant said agreement and thirty or forty of the bills sent him by the plaintiffs of the above form, except in omitting in some of them the words, "terms, 6 months," and that the defendant, *after reading the agreement and looking over the bills*, made advances to HOWE on the goods, believing that HOWE owned them.

Decision.—On these facts the court held—

I. That the bills of parcels which were sent from time to time with the merchandise did not change the terms of the written agreement under which the property was sent to HOWE. They were sent only as memoranda of the amount and value of the merchandise transmitted.

II. The agreement was not a contract of sale. The true interpretation of it seems to be that it was an agreement by which HOWE was to manufacture the stock of the plaintiffs, and to receive from them as his pay

therefor, the proceeds of the sales of the goods, when manufactured and returned to them for sale, deducting the value of the stock and a commission of five per cent. on the sales.

Such being the construction of the bills and the contract, it follows that the defendant had no valid title to the property as against the plaintiffs, and the plaintiffs are entitled to judgment.

Negotiability of Rail-Road Bonds.

Bonds transferred as security for Pre-existing Debts.—In the same volume of Gray's Mass. Reports, (13 *Gray*, 7,) we find reported the case of Culver and others *vs.* Benedict, which was a bill in equity filed to obtain possession of nine bonds of $1,000 each, issued in Indiana by the Logansport, Peoria and Burlington Railway Company, and payable to bearer.

Facts.—On the trial it was proved that the plaintiffs, being owners of the bonds in question, delivered them to one Edward Soley, (a broker in New-York city,) to procure a loan on them for the plaintiffs and for no other purpose. That Soley thereupon, and without any right or authority, delivered the bonds to the defendant, Benedict, as security for pre-existing debts due from Soley to Benedict, instead of using them as directed by the plaintiffs. The agreement between Benedict and Soley was made in New-York. But eight of the bonds were (pursuant to that agreement) delivered by Soley to Benedict in Massachusetts, and the other one was delivered in Connecticut.

Decision.—On these facts the court held—

I. These securities more closely resemble promissory notes payable to bearer. They are put in circulation and pass from hand to hand by delivery, and are thus bought and sold in the stock market, no formal transfers being required, and interest is paid thereon to whomsoever demands the same, upon presentation thereof, or the coupons attached thereto. Hence the right of the defendant, Benedict, to retain these securities as against the plaintiffs must be decided upon the same principles as if they were negotiable notes made payable to bearer. That such is the character of these bonds is also settled by legislative enactment.

II. None of these bonds were transferred to Benedict in the State of New-York, but eight of them were delivered to him in Massachusetts and one in Connecticut. *The transfer must be dealt with as a Massachusetts contract, under the circumstances disclosed.*

III. By the law of Massachusetts the receiving of a negotiable note in payment of a pre-existing debt, as collateral security for the same, excludes all the equities between the original parties thereto. Of course it must be taken in good faith and without notice of anything to impeach its validity as a just debt. Hence, on the facts disclosed in this case, the defendants' title to these bonds is perfect. Judgment was, therefore, given for the defendants against the plaintiff.

Such were the main propositions decided by the court in this case. Had, however, the court held that this was a New-York contract, (the contract to transfer having been made in New-York,) they must have reached a different final conclusion. For in New-York it is well settled

that a party taking a negotiable security in payment of, or collateral to a *pre-existing debt*, holds the security subject to all the equities between the person from whom he receives it and the original owner. This, it seems to us, is the more equitable doctrine. The party who takes the security on a *pre-existing debt*, actually parts with nothing for the security, and is, therefore, in no way damnified if compelled to re-deliver such security to the true owner. Such, too, is the law, we believe, in Connecticut, and we do not quite understand why the transfer of the one bond in Connecticut was not held to be a Connecticut transfer, and construed accordingly.

Insurance.

Life Insurance.—The action of Taylor *vs.* Ætna Life Insurance Company, (13 *Gray*, 434,) was brought to recover the amount claimed to be due under a life insurance policy. The policy was on the life of Andrew Taylor, for seven years from the 11th of April, 1855, in the sum of $700, payable "within ninety days after due notice and proof of the death of said Andrew Taylor, if within the term of this policy," with a condition that the policy should be void if the said Taylor should, without the consent of the company, endorsed upon the policy, pass beyond the settled limits of the United States, or certain of the British Provinces, or west of the Rocky Mountains.

Annexed to the policy was a license, of the same date, from the company, by which, in consideration of an extra premium, said Taylor was permitted "to pass by sea, in first-class decked vessels, from any port of the United States north of the thirty-ninth degree of north latitude to and from any port bordering on the Pacific Ocean, and to reside in California," and also "to pass to and from California *via* Chagres and Panama, or by the Nicaragua route."

The *defence* made was—*First.* That no affidavit or certificate of the *attending physician*, as to the circumstances and occasion of the death of Andrew Taylor, was ever furnished to the defendants, although the plaintiff was informed, at the time he gave the notice and furnished certain other proofs of such death, that the defendants held such certificates or affidavit to be essential, and that until furnished the proof would not be considered complete nor the loss payable. It is admitted that the ship's physician was present and attending during the sickness, and at the time of the death of said Taylor; and the plaintiff offers no excuse for not furnishing such certificate, except the inconvenience and expense of sending to the Pacific coast to obtain it. *Second.* The other defence was, that the said Andrew Taylor was on board the steamship Sierra Nevada "*as a steerage passenger.*"

Decision.—The court held that neither of the above was a defence to the action. The substance of the opinion is as follows:

I. By the terms of the policy the sum insured was payable in ninety days "after due notice and proof of the death of Andrew Taylor." Such notice and proof were therefore prerequisite to the maintenance of this action. It is, however, admitted in the case that there was no defect in the proof of said Taylor's death, unless, in order to constitute due proof thereof, it was necessary to produce a sworn certificate of the phy-

sician who attended the deceased in his last sickness. The ground taken by the defendants is, that such certificate is a requisite and essential part of the preliminary proof of the death, and made so, not only by the terms and reasonable intendment of the contract contained in the policy, but also by their own usage and understanding, and the usage and understanding of other life insurance companies.

To support this ground of defence, the defendants have introduced (the plaintiff's counsel consenting) a pamphlet issued by them, which they were accustomed to give to claimants on their policies, and which, it is admitted by the plaintiff, was given to him by the defendants at the time when he presented to them his proof of ANDREW TAYLOR'S death. Under the head of "proofs of death required," that pamphlet contained, among other required proofs, the following: 1*st.* A certificate "*from the physician who attended the party* during his last sickness, stating particularly the nature of the disease, its duration and the time of death." It was also a part of said required proof that the certificate "should be sworn to before a magistrate or other officer qualified to administer an oath or affirmation." But in all this we can find no defence to the action. *The policy does not embody nor refer to any by-law, requisition, usage or understanding of the defendants as to the kind of proof which they should require of the death of* ANDREW TAYLOR. Whatever, therefore, might be such by law, requisition, usage or understanding, the plaintiff would not be bound thereby. He is bound only by the policy itself, and that is, to furnish "*due proof*" of the death. If the defendants would have bound the plaintiff by their by-laws, &c., they should have made them a part of the contract contained in the policy. 2*d.* No authority was cited which sustains the position that ANDREW TAYLOR, by taking passage as a *steerage passenger*, failed to conform to the license given to him by the defendants to pass by sea in first-class deck vessels, of which the steamship in which he took passage is admitted to be one. And the court do not know, judicially or otherwise, that life is less safe in the steerage than in any other apartment of a vessel.

Mutual Insurance.—In the last volume of the New-York Court of Appeals Reports, (21 *N. Y.*, 158, LAWRENCE *vs.* NELSON,) we find a case which decides that a member of a *mutual* insurance company, upon its insolvency, cannot, in an action brought against him to recover the amount of his premium note, set off a loss sustained by him on his policy, and adjusted before the company failed. This decision is an interesting one, as showing a characteristic difference between contracts with a *mutual* insurance company and all other contracts. For example: It is of course evident that if A. owes B., and B. owes A., the two accounts would be set off, the one against the other, in an action brought by the assignee of one of them. So, also, should a stock insurance company fail with an unpaid loss, owing A., in an action brought against A. by the receiver of the company to recover any sum due from him, A. would clearly be entitled to set off his loss against the claim of the company. But in a *mutual* company, where the action is brought to recover the amount of the premium note, no such claim would be an offset, for the reason that the *insured* is also an *insurer*—each sufferer is bound to *make* compensation as well as to *receive* it. As the court says, in its opinion, "The members of the association vir-

tually agree to insure each other, and provide a common fund (by giving these premium notes) to indemnify in case of loss. As all have contributed to this fund, they have a community of interest in it; and each member having his proportionate share of the losses, is entitled to his proportionate share of the profits, if any are realized." Thus, the court adds, "when the assets of the company are inadequate to the payment of the losses of all its members, the effect of permitting a sufferer to set off his loss in full against his premium notes, (which are his contribution to the means of the company,) is not only to confer a benefit without making compensation, but to take from the shares of his associate sufferers in the common fund—to which fund he and they are ratably entitled."

Tolls on Rail-Roads.

The People of the State of New-York vs. *The New-York Central Rail-Road.*—It will be remembered that this action was brought a year or more ago by the Attorney-General to recover about five millions of dollars for past tolls, and to establish the liability of the defendants to pay tolls for an indefinite period hereafter. The case was tried at the Orange County Circuit, and resulted in the dismissal of the complaint. An appeal was then taken by the Attorney-General to the general term of the Supreme Court, which was elaborately argued at Poughkeepsie by Attorney-General Myers, for the plaintiff, and Messrs. Paige & Tremain, for the defendants, and now the unanimous decision of the court on this appeal has just been pronounced, affirming the judgment of dismissal rendered at the circuit. This mode, therefore, of replenishing the State Treasury, has thus far proved unsuccessful. The case will, however, be taken to the Court of Appeals, but we cannot believe that any different conclusion can be reached by our court of last resort.

The facts upon which this claim is based are very simple. The defendants are a corporation formed under the act of April, 1853. Previous to their organization under this act, they existed (as is well known) as several separate companies, each under its own charter. Part of these companies, by their charters, were required to pay tolls on all property transported by them, and others were required to pay toll only during canal navigation, and others not at all. The act of 1853, under which they were all consolidated, made the defendants subject to all the liabilities of the several companies, and also subject to the liabilities imposed by the general rail-road act of 1850, one section of which act required all corporations formed under it, and whose roads were parallel to and within thirty miles of any State canal, to pay tolls on freight. On the 10th of July, 1851, however, an act was passed abolishing tolls on rail-roads after December 31st, 1851, and repealing all acts and parts of acts inconsistent with that act. This provision the defendants set up as their defence to this action. The plaintiffs, on the contrary, insist that the act of 1851 was unconstitutional and void, because these tolls formed "part of the revenues of the State canals," and that by the constitution the legislature is prohibited from selling, leasing or otherwise disposing of the canals, or their freight or their revenue. The point, therefore, at issue is, whether or not this act of the legislature abolishing tolls is unconstitutional. Or, in other words, the plaintiff must make out, before

his claim can be considered established, first, that these rail-road tolls are a part of the "revenues of the State canals," and second, that the constitution forbids the impairing of these revenues.

The Supreme Court has held, as we have said above, that this act of 1851 is not unconstitutional, and that the defendants, therefore, are not liable to pay tolls. The question now will have to be passed upon by the Court of Appeals, and hence we shall not produce here the opinion of the Supreme Court. We have had the pleasure of reading a very able argument on this question, by the Hon. CHARLES P. KIRKLAND, of New-York, who was a member of the convention which framed the constitution, and, therefore, particularly able to judge of the intention of that body in inserting those clauses upon which the argument of the plaintiffs' counsel is based. It seems to us that he has demonstrated very clearly that there is no foundation whatever for this claim; that the words of the constitution will not grammatically admit of any such construction; that the language used was well understood by the constitutional convention and the then State officers, (this is clearly shown by the documents called for by and presented to the convention,) as meaning simply the canal tolls and water-rents, and that the sentiment of the convention forming the constitution was absolutely opposed to the policy of tolling rail-roads, and that it could not, therefore, have intended to have fastened such a system forever on the State. We trust there will be no unnecessary delay in presenting this case to the Court of Appeals for its decision.

CHAINS BY MACHINERY.

In New-York a company has been organized with a capital stock of $1,000,000, for the purpose of manufacturing chains of every description, with machinery, the invention of G. G. DENNIS, Esq., who has spent thirteen years in perfecting it, and has now sold his invention to two companies for the sum of $300,000. The New-York company proposes to locate their works, which will be 400 feet in length by 80 in breadth, at Bristol, R. I.

The machinery will be driven by three steam-engines, the largest of 200 horse-power, and will be capable of working up 1,000 tons of bar iron per month into chains of every size and description, from the heaviest cable down to the smallest dog chain.

Mr. DENNIS has three different machines, adapted to the manufacture of small, medium and heavy chains; the largest will weigh about six tons, and will require the aid of only one man to turn out the heaviest cable chain. He has also got up improved machinery for making rings and shackles. It is not probably generally known that the immense amount of chains used in this country are nearly all imported. The persevering efforts of Mr. DENNIS to perfect machinery by which an article so extensively consumed here may be manufactured in this country in successful competition with the cheap hand labor of Europe, entitles him to much credit as a mechanical engineer.

COMMERCIAL PROGRESS IN EASTERN ASIA.

By PERRY MCDONOUGH COLLINS, *Commercial Agent of the United States for the Amoor River.*

I. RUSSIAN SETTLEMENT OF THE AMOOR. II. STATISTICS OF PRESENT COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE AMOOR. III. MODES OF CONDUCTING COMMERCE BETWEEN THE AMOOR AND THE CENTRAL PROVINCES. IV. CLASSES OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE REQUIRED FOR CONSUMPTION IN ASIATIC RUSSIA. V. NATIVE PRODUCTIONS ADAPTED FOR EXPORT. VI. IMPORTANCE TO RUSSIA OF COMMERCIAL AND TELEGRAPHIC COMMUNICATION BETWEEN THE AMOOR AND CENTRAL PROVINCES. VII. EXTENT AND NATURE OF THE AMOOR REGION, MONGOLIA, MANCHOORIA AND EASTERN SIBERIA. VIII. COMMERCIAL AND BOUNDARY TREATIES BETWEEN CHINA AND RUSSIA.

AT about the epoch of the accession of the present Manchoo dynasty (1642) over China, the hardy Russian exiles, gold-diggers and fur-hunters, led on, probably, by some daring Cossack, who had emigrated, either with or without his own consent, to the head waters of the Amoor, began to extend their hunting and fishing excursions, mixed, perhaps, with a little freebooting, along the shores of the Amoor to the east. Most probably the whole course of the Amoor to the sea was well known to these hardy pioneers, and that some trade was even had with the Kamchadales.

The boldness and audacity of these Nerchinsk hunters soon brought them into conflict, upon the southern shore of the Amoor, with the constituted authorities of the Manchoos; for their appropriating propensities did not always allow them to distinguish, with the precaution of good neighbors, between the absolutely wild herds of deer and elk and the half-wild herds of cattle, horses and camels of their Manchoo neighbors. Serious conflicts soon took place, and complaints were made to the supreme authority of China against the marauding Russians. The progress of these free hunters of the Nerchinsk was, however, so rapid and so successful, that fortified camps or towns began to be established upon the north shore of the Amoor, several hundred miles in advance of imperial Russian title to the soil.

Escaped convicts, desperate and hardy adventurers, with the riff-raff of a convict, Cossack and mining population, joined heartily in the fortunes of these new and distant settlements, where Russian power and law for the punishment of crime had not yet reached.

The Russian government unquestionably sympathized with these enterprises on the high-road to the Pacific, and was willing enough to let them go on, watching its own opportunity to make them legitimate.

CAM-HI, a Manchoo, coming to the throne of China about this time, saw plainly enough, that if the Russians were not promptly restrained but little of the vast territory of the Amoor would remain to China. He accordingly set on foot an expedition to drive the Russians from their comfortable quarters at Albasin, which was the chief point of Russian strength.

The Albasinians, finding they were to have serious trouble, perhaps a bloody conflict with organized Chinese troops, repaired to the Russian authorities of Nerchinsk, after the example of Yermack to the Emperor, to hand over to the government all the newly-acquired territory and posses-

sions, together with themselves, on condition of receiving aid to repel the expected Chinese troops—the Russian government granting a full and free pardon to all of her subjects found upon the Amoor who had taken a hasty leave of absence on their own authority.

The two governments were thus soon brought into armed conflict, but CAM-HI's soldiers were too numerous on the Amoor; Albasin capitulated, the Russians retired within their stipulated borders, and the Chinese power ruled supreme on the whole line of the Amoor to the sea; and not long afterwards Chinese embassadors, escorted by a numerous and well-appointed army, with a train of artillery, presented themselves before the gates of Nerchinsk, and constrained GOLOVIN, the Russian embassador, to conclude a treaty, by which Russia abandoned all claims to the Amoor country, or navigation upon its waters. Since that day, 27th August, 1689, up to about 1853–4, the commerce and military operations of Russia to the east, towards the shores and coasts of the Ohotsk, Kamschatka and her American possessions, have been conducted by an immense detour to the north, by way of Yakutsk to Ohotsk or Ayan, and thence distributed, the furs returning to Kyachta and St. Petersburg over the same road. Thus for near two centuries has Russia awaited patiently the development of her power and the right opportunity to seize upon the Amoor and hold it.

Up to the close of 1860 we have reliable information of the following steamers and steamships either navigating or preparing to navigate the Amoor and its approaches: AMERICA, MANCHOOR, JAPANESE, sea-going, built in the United States; two river steamers, LENA and AMOOR, constructed in Philadelphia, iron, shipped and set up at the Amoor; one on private account, at Boston, and two at San Francisco. The Russian government built two at Shilka, over two thousand two hundred miles by the course of the Amoor and Shilka rivers from the sea, and steamed them to the Straits of Tartary. The Russian government has also partly organized a force of ten small courier or mail steamers, which are to keep up postal and military communication along the whole course of the Amoor, Shilka and Ingodah rivers, and connect with the Chinese and Siberian system of overland communication at Irkoutsk.

The Amoor Company (Russian) have had constructed in Europe one steamer, sea-going, and five river steamers. The Russian American Company has two sea-going steamers which visit the Amoor where the headquarters of the company for the Pacific is now located.

From the fact that Nicolivsky, the port of the Amoor, is a military post, and not a commercial port, under custom-house regulations, no exact return of merchandise entered can be given. The papers, manifest and bills of lading of vessels are handed over to the captain of the port, and by him retained until they sail. There being no custom-house, or duties, the value of cargoes stated cannot be relied upon, because it is the policy of merchants frequenting the Amoor to conceal as much as possible from rivals the nature and extent of cargoes taken there for sale.

In 1856, first year of foreign intercourse, only two foreign ships entered the Amoor—both American. In 1857 seven merchant ships arrived in the Amoor, with cargoes amounting to 500,000 silver roubles. In 1858 four ships entered with 805 tons freight for government, and merchandise amounting to 174,650 silver roubles, including 72,444 roubles in

value of Russian production. In 1859 thirteen foreign merchant ships arrived at the Amoor. The total traffic from foreign countries and from the upper Amoor, amounted to 1,090,714 silver roubles; at Nicolawsky, from the upper Amoor, 140,114 silver roubles, while the total import and export amounted to 1,230,829 silver roubles.

The port of Nicolivsky has 2,183 male and 369 female inhabitants. There were forty-nine government houses and two hundred private residences, besides twenty-seven government houses uninhabited. There were twelve stores, of which five were American, making in all two hundred and eighty-eight houses.

Among the inhabitants were 1,518 military, of all grades, with their wives and attachés.

In 1859 there were seven foreign merchants, five of whom were Americans.

In 1860 the amount of merchandise received was greater than the previous year, though the sales, owing to temporary causes, had not been so profitable. One American house had withdrawn, but three others had been added. One of the Amoor Company's steamers had ascended the Amoor, but to what point it is not stated.

The number of vessels entered is not stated, but supposed to be ten to fifteen.

Again, in regard to the commerce to the Amoor in American bottoms, we can get no returns of clearances from American ports, because, with but two or three exceptions, vessels intended for the Amoor have cleared for "ports in the Pacific," consequently, the true returns are not to be had.

In the figures given above we have only a partial statement of the actual value of commerce at the Amoor. The great probability is that the transactions of the government in the purchase of machinery, naval stores and provisions, nor the commerce of the Russian-American Company, are included. During 1856 and 1857 fully 700 barges and rafts descended the Amoor from the Trans-Baikal province of Caston Siberia, freighted with munitions, provisions, merchandise and live-stock. The most of them for government account, but the Russian-American Company and private parties had some share in the expedition.

The Amoor is formed by the junction of the Schilka and Argoon, in 121° 40′ E. L., and 53° 30′ N. L., and, after a very tortuous course of two thousand miles, falls into the Straits of Tartary, in about 140° E. L., 53° N. L. The Amoor is navigable for steamers its whole length.

The winter is severe, but not much more so than Moscow, or in equal degrees of latitude on the Volga. The natural floral and cultivated productions of the country indicate a good grain, fruit and grass country, being also well adapted to the rearing of flocks and herds.

The province of Trans-Baikal, (Eastern Siberia,) which lies in part upon the head-waters of the Amoor, viz., the Schilka and Argoon, contains a population of 340,000, and is the chief source in Eastern Siberia from whence the Russian government procures its silver; the mines are rich and extensive. These mines are, however, worked only by the government, but it is reported that they are soon to be opened to the public.

The Amoor is free from ice, and navigable from May to November, which will compare favorably with the navigable season at St. Petersburg.

There is plenty of time and plenty of water, with properly constructed steamers and barges, or keel-boats, to conduct the commerce, during open water, to such points upon its head-waters as convenience and experience may decide upon, where the overland conveyance will be ready to distribute it to the remotest points of the interior. During the winter all the return produce of the country will be concentrated at these dépôts, ready for shipment to meet the sea-going vessels arriving at tide-water in the spring, and thus the commerce will be regularly and conveniently conducted much on the same plan as at St. Petersburg.

To what extent, or how advantageously this new field of Oriental Asiatic commerce is to be occupied by Americans, depends upon the sagacity and nerve of our merchants.

At first the commerce to the Amoor will be most profitably conducted by sailing vessels; barks of two hundred and fifty to three hundred and fifty tons burden being, in my opinion, the best fitted for that trade. Schooners of one hundred to one hundred and fifty tons may also be employed, for special voyages to Japan, China or San Francisco. Vessels should be of good beam, and not more than ten to twelve feet draft.

Upon the Amoor there should be two classes of steamers: 1st. Side-wheel, of three hundred tons, with a draft of six feet. These would navigate to the mouth of the Zea, or about two-thirds of the distance, and may, in the early summer, reach the head of the Amoor. 2d. Stern-wheel steamers, having twenty feet beam, one hundred and thirty to fifty feet long, with four to four and a half feet hold, and ample power. These steamers would reach the head of navigation, and place their cargoes at available points, from whence sledges, wagons and pack-trains would distribute them throughout the interior of Siberia and Tartary.

Steamers on the Amoor are absolutely necessary to its commercial development. We cannot look, at first, to the immediate shores of the river for any large development of commerce; it is to the Siberian and overland trade from whence we are to reap the first great results. This can only be accomplished by a regular, certain and well-organized system of steam navigation throughout the whole length of the Amoor, Schilka and Ingodah rivers. Dépôts of merchandise must be established, at points upon the head-waters of the Amoor, where the Siberian, Chinese and Tartar tradesmen may resort at all times, and where they may, beyond peradventure, find a full supply of such commodities as they desire. There must be no failure in the supplies on hand at these dépôts, because Moscow, Nijne, Navgorod, St. Petersburg, Pekin and Irbit are at great distances, and a failure of supply on the Amoor would be the loss of a year's supply to the trader, and consequently he would loose faith in the Amoor, and seek other marts for his supplies.

The kind of merchandise at first introduced must conform to the choice of experienced Siberian and Northern Chinese merchants. As we progress, we may introduce new articles and more extensive varieties, as well as to manufacture for them goods of such exact pattern, finish and style as they may order, which will become a very important branch of commerce.

By penetrating at once to the head of the Amoor, we tap a regular, well-established and systematic commerce, both Asiatic and European, a commerce that has been conducted with great success and much spirit for a long time. Here we may take our stand and build upon a sure

foundation. The increased development and extent of this commerce depend much upon the class and calibre of merchants who initiate it; they must neither be wanting in mind or in dollars. It is a wide field, and a distant one; its cycle is a year, consequently patient capitalists only can enter it with any hope of success.

The lower Amoor and Manchooria are not to be forgotten; but, as they are on the high-road to Siberia, and always within our grasp as we are passing along with our well-freighted steamers, to supply them is a very easy matter.

The favorable and enlightened policy of the Russian government has already given us free trade for five years, and Count MOURAVIEFF, who is the father of the annexation of the Amoor to Russia, is in favor of a prolongation of this liberal policy; in fact, the progress and importance of Russian interests in Asia, under Count MOURAVIEFF'S administration of the government of Eastern Siberia, has given him great power and influence, and his views are very likely to prevail.

As evidence of the importance that Russia attaches to her new possession upon the Pacific, we have only to mention the fact that the government is now constructing a line of telegraph, which is to connect St. Petersburg with the mouth of the Amoor and other points upon the Pacific coast, and along the whole northern border of Chinese Tartary. The line will be in operation this year as far as Omsk, in Western Siberia, one-third of the distance from St. Petersburg to the Pacific; in another year it will reach Irkautsk, or probably Kyachta, and so on, in the course of the third year, we may expect it to reach the ocean.

The project now on foot, to tap the Russian line at the Amoor, and carry a line of telegraph *via* BEHRING'S Straits, to unite with the California overland line, will give us telegraphic union with Europe; in fact, with the whole world. Nor is this project so difficult, upon investigation, as it at a first glance appears; the climate presents no impediment, and there is but forty miles of ocean to cross.

The extent of country opened to commercial contact through the Amoor is a matter of interest.

The valley of the Amoor covers from west to east about 40° longitude, and north to south about 13° latitude, probably nearly a million square miles of territory, with a population of some five millions.

Mongolia, Songaria, Northern and Central Tartary, cover a vast extent of territory, six hundred miles wide by two thousand long, with a population of probably ten millions.

These people are rich in cattle, sheep, horses and camels; a barter of merchandise for their hides, skins, pelts, wool, hair and tallow would be large and lucrative.

Eastern Siberia, which would be tributary to the commerce of the Amoor, is also a vast country, covering a million of square miles, with a population of two millions to three millions of European blood.

This immense country is dependent, to a great extent, on Europe and China for its fabrics of cotton, silk, flax and wool; to estimate the value of commerce on the specific supply and demand is quite impossible from present data. We know that the Kyachta tea trade has developed a commerce of fifteen to twenty millions of dollars per annum; what amount of European merchandise Siberia consumes we have no precise knowledge, but we may safely put it at ten millions.

The fair supposition is, that every inhabitant will consume six yards of cotton cloth yearly, and we only put this as an illustration of the value of commerce in one single item, which must govern us in making up the future of this commerce. This would give us 102,000,000 yards of cotton cloth, worth, delivered, certainly ten cents a yard, amounting to $10,200,000.

A very reasonable and important question to be answered is: How are we to be paid for what these people want? Where are the millions of hard dollars to come from out of this wild and distant country, to compensate or equalize this commerce?

To begin with Siberia: she is the California of Russia; her mineral wealth is absolutely beyond any reasonable array of figures. She exports to Russia about $15,000,000 of gold yearly; need more be said?

She has copper, plumbago, tin, silver, marbles, iron, salt, bitumen and precious stones.

She has hemp, flax, furs, skins and peltry, wool, tallow, wax, honey and ivory.

She has tar, pitch and turpentine. All these are elements of wealth, and the contact of an extra-territorial commerce, proffering articles of necessity, convenience and luxury, must excite her population to make an exchange.

Mongolia and Tartary have their skins, pelts, wool, camels' hair, hides and tallow. To these must be added Thibet musk, Bucharian rhubarb, pearls and precious stones.

What can be the amount of these articles that these people will have for export? I do not know—but one item I can suggest. Mutton is the chief article of diet, and I suppose, from my own experience and a knowledge of Tartar appetite, that three sheep *per capita* per annum to the whole population would be a very reasonable allowance. Here we have thirty millions of sheep skins, with the wool included, as one item of the production of this country.

Manchooria and the Amoor river country comes next; here foreign commerce has, up to within a very recent period, been absolutely excluded. It is only since Russia has made this eastward step that outside barbarians have been permitted to look into this country. While Mongolia is strictly a pastoral country, Manchooria is both agricultural and pastoral; yielding, besides, all the more northern grains, corn, rice, silk and ginseng.

Heretofore the commerce of this country has been, of necessity, all directed towards Pekin and Corea; but may we not hope that in a contact along the whole northern border of the Manchooria that a very large and lucrative commerce can be introduced? Like the Mongols, the Manchoos have abundance of cattle, horses and sheep, but having bread, their diet is not so strictly carniverous as the Mongols.

The Manchoos have, however, many fine furs, beside the skins and pelts of wild animals.

The wilder portion of the Amoor country, which now belongs to Russia, that is, all north of the Amoor River, and all east of the Ousuree, from its confluence with the Amoor, and following the Ousuree to the south through Lake Hinka, and on to the border of Corea, forms again a distinct subdivision of this part of Asia, in extent covering, probably, not far from 300,000 square miles. This country has an aboriginal popu-

lation of some sixty thousand; what the Russian and Manchoo population may be is difficult to state with any degree of certainty.

The Russian government has already commenced a system of colonization both from Europe and Siberia, and is actively engaged in fortifying its approaches seaward, and in planting military posts and opening post-roads in order to protect the frontier and afford facilities for certain and rapid overland communication at all seasons of the year.

The demand for foreign commerce is of course restricted to mere necessity, and to the actual population of the coasts and borders of the river, because, as yet, steam has not succeeded in presenting to the upper and distant populations stores of merchandise to save them the necessity of the overland, European and Chinese supply.

This country is rich in fur animals, the rivers abound in fish, and gold is found in the mountains to the north of the Amoor. The forests, both upon the Upper and Lower Amoor, are fair and abundant, with ample resources for naval stores and timber for all economic purposes.

The island of Sak-ha-lin, opposite the mouth of the Amoor, abounds in extensive deposits of coal suitable for steam vessels, accessible and already worked by the Russian government.

The steady and onward progress of the present Emperor of Russia, ALEXANDER II., in ameliorating the condition of his people, and in encouraging internal commerce and communication, will open a vast field to American enterprise and commerce.

The Mouravieff-Igoon Convention, ratified by the Ignatieff-Pekin treaty, has annihilated all of those ancient border restrictions against free intercourse between the Chinese and Russians.

Under this treaty, merchants and traders may freely cross the frontier and establish themselves in such towns and cities as they choose, the police authorities being specially directed to protect them.

This liberal policy will give great stimulus to the Siberian and Amoor merchants, and must lead to the introduction of European and American merchandise and manufactures into the interior of the whole length and breadth of Tartary.

We have also a recent ukase of the Emperor, granting to foreigners equal privileges with the native Russian merchants in all parts of the empire. This ukase will explain itself, is one of great liberality, and must lead to most important results, opening, as it does, this vast empire to the merchants and bankers of the world.

On the 7th–19th July, 1860, the Emperor addressed to the Senate the following ukase:

"The Imperial manifest of the 1st January, 1807, has set certain restrictions to the commercial rights of foreigners established either permanently or temporarily in Russia. Now with the improvements introduced in the means of communication, and the rapid development of the international commercial relations, said restrictions do not agree any longer with the necessities of the present times. On the other hand, the principal European powers allow our subjects, as in general to all foreigners, to carry on commerce in their countries on the same terms as their own subjects.

"Taking into consideration the useful influence that would result to all branches of public wealth by an extension granted to the facility of profiting by use of foreign capital in all kinds of enterprises, and desirous

to give, at the same time, a new proof of our particular solicitude for the general prosperity of trade, agriculture and of industry in the Empire, and show, at the same time, a just reciprocity towards foreign powers, we have thought proper to grant, in this respect, to foreigners residing in Russia the same rights as our subjects enjoy amongst the principal European nations.

"Consequently, and in accordance with the opinion of the Council of the Empire, we decree:

"1*st.* It is allowed to foreigners to inscribe themselves in all the guilds of merchants in like manner as the subjects of the Empire, and to enjoy all the commercial rights that those guilds give to Russian merchants. (*Art.* 77, *à* 107 *du reglement sur le commerce, tome xi., du corps des Lois, de* 1857.)

"*First Observation.*—The foreign Israelite subjects, known by their social position and by the great extent of their commerce, who arrive from abroad, can, according to the order established—that is to say, on a special authorization each time by the Ministers of Finance, of the Interior and of Foreign Affairs—trade in the Empire and establish banking-houses on procuring a license of merchant of first guild. It is also allowed them to establish factories, buy and take on lease real estate, according to the resolution of the present ukase.

"*Second Observation.*—The commercial rights granted to Asiatics are resolved by the articles 227 to 233 of the commercial regulations. (*Tome xi., corps des Lois, edition de* 1857.)

"2*d.* The safety of the domicil and of the magazines of foreigners, as well as of the lands that appertain to them, are placed under the protection of the common law; no search can be made in their dwellings, nor in their commercial books, but in accordance to the regulations prescribed in such cases to Russian subjects of the same condition.

"3*d.* Foreigners can acquire—be it by purchase, be it by inheritance, legacy, donation, concession of the Crown, etc.—all kinds of movable and immovable property, with the exception, however, of that which the hereditary Russian nobility and foreigners who have obtained the right can alone possess in virtue of laws in force.

"4*th.* Foreigners, with the exception of Israelites, can direct, under title of clerk, inhabited lands, if they have the procuration of the proprietors to that effect. It is also allowed them farms, according to agreements allowed by the laws, real estate occupied, and of any other kind, inhabited or not, by conforming only to the condition and restriction imposed upon the subjects of the Empire. (*Code Civil, livre iv., cest. iii., ch.* 2.)

"The Senate will take the necessary measures for the execution of the present.

"ALEXANDRE."

In order to make this subject more readily comprehended by our readers, we annex in full the report to the House of Representatives in February last. It is one of the most important commercial subjects of the day.

SURVEY OF THE NORTHERN WATERS,

Coasts and Islands of the Pacific Ocean, &c.

Mr. John Cochrane, from the Committee on Commerce, made the following report, February 18, 1861:

The Committee on Commerce, to whom was referred the memorial of Perry McD. Collins, asking the aid of Congress, in order to make a thorough exploration and survey of the coasts, islands and seas of the Russian possessions, both in Asia and America, from the mouth of the Amoor River, in Asiatic Russia, to the confines of the Russian possessions in America, adjoining the possessions of Great Britain, in view of the construction of a line of telegraph, which shall unite the city of New-York, in the United States of America, and consequently the whole of the United States, Canada and the British possessions in America, with not only London, but with all the great capitals of Europe and Asia, respectfully report: That the committee have had under consideration the said memorial, and, after mature reflection and a study of the importance of the proposition, have been deeply impressed with its great value to commerce.

In the first place, what is it that Mr. Collins proposes?

"The telegraphic union of Europe with America, overland, *via* Asiatic Russia and Behring's Straits."

Can this be accomplished? Let us see.

It is already known to practical working telegraphists, that high latitudes add to rather than retard the electric current. During snow-storms the escape of electricity over the common wire and pole telegraph is essentially diminished; thus, while rain and moisture are good conductors, snow, ice and a dry, cold atmosphere are good non-conductors or insulators; consequently, high latitudes are favorable to the free and rapid passage of the electric current.

But in this connection we do not have to depend upon theory alone to substantiate the truth of the foregoing proposition; we have existing lines of telegraph stretching from Berlin to Vienna, from Vienna to St. Petersburg, from St. Petersburg to Moscow, and from Moscow eastward to Perm—all to the north of 47°, and as high as 60° north latitude. Here, then, we have positive and irrefragable proof of the practicability of telegraphic communication in very high latitudes.

Being satisfied that telegraphic communication can be successfully maintained in high latitudes, we will, in the next place, inquire as to the country over which it is proposed to construct this line, in view of its practical maintenance.

It is well known, that from Moscow to Kamschatka the Russian government hold absolute sway, and have a continual system of overland communication, absolutely free from interruption, so far as the inhabitants of the whole intervening country is concerned. There is not on the whole line a single hostile tribe or nation. The absolute, the peaceful, the patriarchal sway maintained by the imperial government over this vast extent

of country might be a profitable, a humane and a practical study of our own government in the control and government of the red tribes inhabiting the great interior of our own country, from the borders of Missouri to the Sierra Nevada Mountains and the Pacific Ocean.

The accompanying papers indicate more precisely the different routes by which it is proposed to reach the American shore. Therefore, we do not propose to examine them in detail. We will not refrain, however, from expressing our conviction, in view of all the difficulties, physical, mechanical and experimental, that the route which involves the least amount of submerged cable should take preference. Up to the present time experience has proved that submerged cables of any great length are, practically, of no value for telegraphic purposes. Without going into lengthened or tedious detail, we have sufficient evidence of the truth of this proposition, not in isolated or unimportant cases, but in gigantic and costly efforts to unite continents.

First in time and place were the efforts to unite Europe and Africa, next Europe and America, and lastly Africa and India. All these great schemes have failed, apparently from physical difficulties; for if science, ingenuity, hardihood and indomitableness ever gained a victory by their united efforts in a great cause, we certainly should have had, ere this, telegraphic communication nearly around the earth. We all know the history of the Atlantic cable, and of other long, deep-sea cables, but perhaps the facts in regard to the Suez and Kurachee cable, or, as it is more familiarly known, "the Red Sea cable," because quite recent, may be instructive.

The British government, being very anxious to establish telegraphic communication between her own insular shores and her far-off Indian possessions, determined either to construct or to encourage to be constructed submerged lines from England to Gibraltar, from Gibraltar to Malta, thence to Egypt and overland to Suez, from whence a cable was to stretch along the bottom of the Red Sea to Aden, along the Arabian coast to Muscat, and thence under the Arabian Sea to the mouths of the Indus.

This gigantic work was to place Bombay, Calcutta and Singapore in the immediate and visible presence of the Foreign Office, where, in peace or in war, by night or by day, secured from friend or enemy, from accident or design, the premier and viceroy could hold council over the destinies of India, six thousand miles distant.

Under tenders to the British government a company was formed, with a capital of £1,000,000, for the construction of the line from Suez to Kurachee, in India. Five per cent. interest per annum was guaranteed by the government for fifty years upon the capital; provided, only, that the company expended the money in good faith, whether the cable proved permanently a working telegraph or not. These were the best terms the government could get; the contract was made, and the cable has been submerged; it worked for a short time, and then, like its great predecessor, the Atlantic cable, ceased to speak.

Very recent accounts tell us, that after every effort upon the part of the most able and efficient practical telegraphists, like the Atlantic cable, it has been abandoned to the fishes, and remains only as another gigantic monument to the perseverance and liberality of the English government and nation in works of public utility and national import-

ance. Thus we perceive that, up to the present time, some ten thousand miles of deep-sea submerged cable has been lost or abandoned, costing, in the aggregate, not far from ten millions of dollars. We therefore consider, that without some new plan by which a telegraph can be constructed, or the application of some new principle in electricity by which the known difficulties can be overcome, Europe and America must remain as far asunder as if electricity had never been discovered, or MORSE, WHEATSTONE, AMPHERE and SIERNENS never had lived.

But must mankind, by the intervention of the Atlantic Ocean, be forever barred from the advantages of this agent? We hope not.

Mr. COLLINS has, we think, demonstrated the practicability of the construction of a telegraph line from Moscow to the shores of the Pacific Ocean. Here he was compelled to pause in the personal inspection and exploration of the proposed route, for want of adequate means to cross to the American coast. We perceive, in tracing the route over which it is proposed to construct this line of telegraph, that there are many elements of success in it, besides the fact that no very large bodies of water obstruct its pathway.

The Russian government is now engaged in pushing forward a line to the East, which has already reached Perm, one thousand miles east of Moscow, and is to be continued to the mouth of the Amoor. This line, with its system of lateral branches, unites the whole of Europe, taps the Caspian provinces of Russia, Circassia, Georgia, Persia and British India, and, consequently, whatever telegraphic connection may exist between Europe and Africa.

Penetrating eastward through the extensive mining districts of the Ural, it leaps from town to town and city to city, until Omsk is reached, from whence a branch will penetrate to the frontier of Chinese Tartary and Kokhan, on the route of the great central caravan trade, vibrating through that immense country between Persia on the west and Manchooria on the east.

Pausing for a few moments at this point, we should take at least a hasty glance of a country which may in a few years figure as one of interest. Russia has been steadily pushing at this point to the south, until she has touched, as it were, British India; not that she has as yet joined territory, but that she has tapped Indian commerce. Turkistan to the west, Thibet to the south, Bucharia, Koko-Nor and inner Mongolia to the east, all combine to make this *southern central wedge*, driven by Russia into the very heart of *Central Asia*, a point that must eventually gather around it an extended and lucrative commerce.

This *central gate* of *inner Asia*, through which the whole commerce of a vast and populous country must flow, is renowned in history as the pathway of nations—the only practicable pass between Eastern and Western Asia as a central route. Through this *gate* the Great Mogul, GENGHIS, led his victorious hosts, under the banners of a thousand chiefs; where OCTAI and TIMOUR followed, and where MARCO POLO saw an Asiatic Italy, rich in fruits and vines, wines and silks, and all the marks of wealth and luxury.

The approach of Russia to the centre of *Northern India* is really a matter of interest to the civilized world, because it will evidently open that hitherto sealed country to the knowledge of the world and to commerce. It is only a little to the south of the point gained by the late

Russian-Chinese treaty that the great pioneer in Asiatic exploration, MARCO POLO, passed, on his way to the court of KUBLAI KHAN.

Yarkand is but five degrees south of the Russian post of Varnoë. MARCO POLO describes the countries through which he passed on the line of Casgar, Yarkand, Hoton and Pein. He says: "That these countries contain many castles and cities; that the people, besides much merchandise and manufactures, have fine gardens, vineyards and orchards, with a good supply of silk, and all necessaries in great abundance; cotton is also grown, and the artisans are most skilful; they have also many precious stones."

In fact, MARCO POLO's description of the countries passed through in these *central* regions make them quite a second Italy in climate and productions.

The province of Hoton alone is estimated to have (now) a population of two millions and a half. It is through this country, which is, as it were, a gate, in consequence of the approach of the Altai chain of mountains from the north and the Himalaya from the south, without uniting, that an easy passage is found from Eastern to Western Asia, and may be compared, physically, in some respects, as a means of communication with the Gila route, in traversing our continent.

At the Gila the Rocky Mountains have been broken down, while the Sierra Madre have not yet raised their formidable barriers. Now, suppose the Atlantic side had a population of some three hundred millions, and the Pacific side two hundred millions, even without rail-roads or steamboats, one could very readily conceive that there would be a very large commerce between the two sections through this pass, even if it had to be carried on the backs of animals, or even of men. But with the hardy Bactrian camel, a train of which is nearly equal to one of our great freight trains on a rail-road, the commerce would of necessity and naturally be very considerable. Such is the gate of *Central Asia* now.

The most southern outpost of Russia in this section is in about 43° north latitude, and 78° east longitude; Yarkand is 5° southwest; Samerkand, Kokan and Bucharia west by south; on the high caravan route to Persia *via* Yarkand, Saddak and Cashmere, you reach Cabul; while through Hoton and Murgen the Koko-Nor is reached on the navigable waters of the Ho-ang-ho.

Saddak, it must be remembered, is on the waters of the Indus, and consequently on the high road to British India, and only 8° southwest of the Russian frontier. A glance at the map of Asia will at once show the importance of this gate; and if Russia should will to set up a great national fair there, an Asiatic Nijne-Novgorod would soon spring into existence.

It is not necessary to follow very closely the route proposed to be traversed by the main trunk line of telegraph; we see that it follows along the great post and caravan route, reaching from Moscow to the heart and centre of Russo-Chinese commerce at Kyachta, about four thousand miles to the east.

After leaving Omsk, we have found many towns and cities besides Irkoutsk, the capital of Eastern Siberia, at which point concentrates the commerce of a vast country. Irkoutsk holds the keys and unlocks all that is to the east for the west, and all that is to the west for the east—a beautiful city, half barbaric, half Asiatic, where refinement and the

civilization and the energy of Europe have met, subdued and utilized the fierce hordes of the Steppes.

From Irkoutsk to Kyachta, and from Kyachta to Pekin, Nankeen, Shanghai, Amoy and Hong Kong, seems to be the natural route, all by land, which shall place China, from the great wall to the sea, all under magnetic influence.

From this, *via* the Amoor River, to the shores of the Pacific Ocean, though a new field, is one of much interest; and though but recently brought to the knowledge of the country through the report of Mr. COLLINS' explorations, recent events have brought it prominently before the commercial world. By the treaty between China and Russia, concluded at Pekin on the 14th November, 1860, it is provided:

"ART. 1. Henceforth the eastern frontier between the two empires shall commence from the junction of the rivers Schilkah and Argoen, will follow the course of the river Amoor to the junction of the Ousuree with the latter. The land on the left (north) bank of the river Amoor belongs to the empire of Russia, and the territory on the right bank, (to the south,) to the junction of the river Ousuree, to the empire of China. Further on, the frontier line between the two empires, from the point of the issue of the river Sou-gat-chu, divides the Lake Hinka, and takes the direction of the river Be-lin-ho; (Tour;) from the mouth of the river it follows the mountain range to the mouth of the river Houp-i-tou, (Houp-tou,) and from thence (that point) the mountains situated between the river Koun-choun and the sea, as far as the river Thou-men-Kiang. Along this line equally the territory on the sea-side belongs to the empire of Russia, and that to the west to the empire of China. The frontier line rests on the river Thou-men-Kiang, at twenty Chinese versts (li) above its mouth into the sea."

"On the whole of the frontier line established by this treaty trade free of all duties or restrictions is established between the subjects of the two empires. The local authorities are bound to give special protection to such trade, and to those who exercise it."

Free intercourse is also extended to the citizens of both nations. Thus, at one stroke, the barrier of Chinese exclusiveness has been broken down along the whole northern boundary, and the Amoor River has been opened to free trade from its sources to the sea. This new liberal commercial and boundary treaty must soon work a wonderful change in the interior commerce of that vast country, and must make the Amoor River a great commercial highway.

Tributary to this river there are many millions of people, whose trade and commerce must be vastly augmented by steam, rail-roads and telegraphs. This commerce must naturally find outlet to the Pacific through the Amoor, where our merchants may congregate, and with their ships distribute it to the markets of the world.

From the mouth of the Amoor another lateral line of telegraph is proposed, to extend to Yeddo, the capital of Japan; this is accomplished by crossing to the island of Suk-hah-lin, to Jesso, to Niphon, upon which Yeddo is situated, with about only twenty miles of submerged cable. Thus we have progressed from Moscow to the shores of the Pacific Ocean without meeting with more than the ordinary physical difficulties on great lines of telegraph, and have, in a very hasty manner and to a very inconsiderable extent, touched upon the trade, commerce,

population and resources of this vast country, yet in the main locked up from the approach of exterior contact and commerce.

We have shown how, by its own local and intrinsic merit, *this route attracts* and *attaches* to itself the whole European system of telegraphs, and also how naturally the Caucasian, Persian and Indian nations are made tributary to it; and, as we progress to the east, other nations, including China and Japan, are all, as it were, embraced in its ample folds. Having, therefore, as we conceive, annexed Europe, Asia and Africa, we have yet America to reach, in order to encompass the whole earth.

From the mouth of the Amoor, in order to reach America, there are several routes proposed. Whichever may be the most practicable should be most unquestionably selected. We do not propose to enter into any lengthened argument for or against any of the particular routes; but we have come to the conclusion that until the route *via* BEHRING'S Straits shall be, upon full and fair investigation, pronounced impracticable, to be the route to which we should give our attention. By this route submarine cables are dispensed with, except at one point—the crossing of the straits—and then only to the extent of forty to sixty miles, which may be divided into shorter sections by using islands lying in the straits.

The advantage of this route over all others is so patent, in view of the necessity upon any other line of long submerged cables, that it has only to be stated to be at once fully appreciated. We do not, from all the light before us, believe that the physical difficulties in the way are of such a nature as to be insuperable, though they may be very great. Our greatest apprehension arises from the presence of savage tribes along a portion of the route as you approach BEHRING'S Straits, over which, as yet, the Russian government has not exercised absolute control. This objection may, however, be very materially modified when we come to know, by actual contact, how far these tribes are to be controlled, even without force.

It is not apprehended that any unusual stubbornness or difficulty will be encountered, not incident to most of the red tribes, both in America and Asia However, the cause is worthy of the trial; and until it is known that they cannot be controlled sufficiently to permit the passage of a telegraph through their country, we shall be in favor of the attempt.

It is not considered that on the American side much difficulty will be encountered, except in a portion of British Columbia; but it is to be hoped that the importance of the object in view will bring sufficient power to bear upon the difficulties to be overcome as to dissipate them all.

What are the probabilities and the prospects of the ultimate success of an overland telegraph to unite Europe with America? Let us see: In the first place, we have come to the conclusion that it can be done; and, in the next place, it is infinitely more practicable and likely to succeed than by any other route or mode yet suggested. In fact, we have come to the conclusion of its entire practicability, and that it only is a mere question of how much will it cost, and can it be made to pay as an investment? In an international, in a commercial, in a political, in a utilitarian point of view, it soars above all mere questions of cost, of profit and loss, of dollars and cents. It is one of those great works which very properly commends itself to the attention of all governments, because its value or importance cannot be measured by a mere money standard.

If it were possible, we think that the commercial nations of the world should unite in its construction, and donate it to progress and civilization. But as such a plan would be impracticable, the next thing to be done is to encourage the construction of it by private parties by all the means at our command.

Already, while we are writing, the work of progression is busy at both extremities; Russia is constructing her line eastward across the Urals, while the United States is engaged in pushing to the west over the Rocky Mountains and to the shores of the Pacific. Thus these two opposite forces are constantly diminishing the intervening space, and solving most effectually all doubts and difficulties as to the possibility of telegraphic communication overland between America and Europe.

Telegraphs, tending ultimately to unite America with Europe by the overland route, *via* BEHRING'S Straits and Asiatic Russia, are in progress of construction on both sides; Russia is determined to build her line to the Amoor, while the contract made by Colonel HIRAM SIBLEY with the United States government, to construct a line to California, insures a line from the Mississippi to San Francisco. Nor is this all; a line is in course of construction from California to Oregon. Consequently it will be perceived that there remains only the intervening space on the American side from Oregon to BEHRING'S Straits, some seventeen hundred miles, and on the Asiatic side from the Straits to the mouth of the Amoor, some two thousand two hundred miles, in all, say about four thousand miles, to complete the circuit of the earth. It would seem a small matter to fill up this intervening gap, when we take into consideration the immense interests involved.

We have already seen many millions of dollars expended in experimenting with long deep-sea cables, upon theory alone, in order to unite distant continents. It certainly looks to be but a small affair, to carry out this plan of connecting the Old with the New World, when we see that success is certain with our present knowledge of working telegraphs, and at a less cost than was incurred in laying the Atlantic cable.

Four thousand miles of land telegraph is no very great distance, when we see what has already been constructed and in progress of construction in America and Europe. The California overland line will be two thousand miles long, and will be constructed for about three hundred and sixty thousand dollars. In fact, the proposed line from Oregon to the mouth of the Amoor can undoubtedly be built for less than the Atlantic cable cost.

There are now in Europe some one hundred and fifty thousand miles of telegraph, and in America fifty or sixty thousand miles, producing a revenue of probably ten millions of dollars annually. Unite all these lines, and make them subsidiary to the great world-encircling telegraph, and it must become one of the most lucrative investments possible.

If this line should be finally constructed, it leaves nothing more for human enterprise to achieve in telegraphic communication, except to fill up gaps and construct lateral lines. It will encompass the earth over a route formed by nature, and to which there can be no rival. It accomplishes every thing, satisfies every interest, penetrates into every nation and country, pervades the whole earth.

Aside from telegraphic communication, there are other interests which would be materially benefited by this exploration and survey.

The Amoor is now open to free trade. A number of American ships and merchants have been attracted there already by its rising commerce. A number of steamers and steamships have been built in the United States, either for commercial purposes or connected with its rising fortunes as a Russian colony.

Again, in view of establishing steam communication between San Francisco and China by way of Japan, Hakodadi might become an intermediate station, which would rapidly augment American commerce in the North Pacific and adjacent coasts and seas; consequently a more thorough survey and knowledge of those remote coasts and islands would be highly advantageous to commerce. And, in this connection, a thorough search for the most favorable points from whence a supply of coal for steam navigation could be obtained would not be neglected. Coal is found on the Fox islands, on Jesso and Suk-hah-lin.[a]

Our Pacific whaling fleet, of which more than a hundred sail frequent the more remote coast and waters of the North Pacific, would be vastly benefited by such survey as the one proposed. Shipwreck and loss of life would be lessened by a better knowledge of those waters, which consideration should, if uecessary, argue in favor of the proposed survey.

As to Russian America, so little known to our commerce (because of the exclusive grant to the Russian-American Company of its trade and commerce, internal and external) heretofore, we are likely, on the expiration of their grant, in 1862, to have a commerce also in that direction, when it will also be highly advantageous to have a better knowledge of its coasts and waters.

Under all the circumstances of the case, and in view of other benefits to be derived from the exploration and surveys as proposed by Mr. Collins, the committee recommend an adequate appropriation by Congress, in order to carry out successfully the views of the petitioner, and for that purpose report a bill.

Society of the Amoor.—The Society of the Amoor (*Amourskaïa Kompania*) is established in order to promote and develope commercial and industrial activity in the basin of the Amoor. To this effect, the society propose to establish commercial relations with the native inhabitants in the basin of the Amoor, in order to furnish them with all the objects they may desire, in exchange for skins and other products of the chase, or of their fisheries, and to provide the Russian colonies with all necessaries and other useful commodities; to carry on commerce, interior and exterior, through the ports of the Pacific Ocean, except upon the northwest coasts of America, the Allutian and Curile islands, which are reserved by an exclusive grant to the Russian-American Company until 1862; to found establishments and manufactures to develope the indigenous products of the country; to undertake to furnish various objects to the local authorities throughout the whole of Eastern Siberia; and to keep and maintain on the Amoor and its affluent, the Schilkah, steamboats and sailing vessels. * * * * The capital of the society is fixed, at first, at four millions of francs, divided into four thousand shares, of one thousand francs each.

COMMERCE WITH AFRICA.

TRADE IN IVORY AND BARWOOD—CAPE LOPEZ—TOBACCO PLANTATIONS—SUGAR CANE—COTTON.

Explorations and Adventures in Equatorial Africa; with Accounts of the Manners and Customs of the People, and of the Chase of the Gorilla, the Crocodile, Leopard, Elephant, Hippopotamus and other Animals. By PAUL B. DU CHAILLU, *Corresponding Member of the American Ethnological Society, of the Geographical and Statistical Society of New-York, and of the Boston Society of Natural History. With Eighty Engravings. Octavo, pp.* 531. HARPER & BROTHERS, *New-York,* 1861.

THE work of M. CHAILLU has created considerable excitement among the *savans* and *litterateurs* of London and Paris. He is somewhat known in New-York, having been long enough here to be sufficiently known and appreciated as to become a member of two leading societies in this city and of one in Boston. In London the writings of M. CHAILLU have been violently and repeatedly attacked by the *Athenæum* and other critics, while he is defended warmly by others; and this war has not yet ceased, nor his integrity as a man fully established. But giving a fair degree of credence to his work, we find much in it to claim the attention of the merchant and trader, and no slight materials for the earnest consideration of the philanthropist and statesman.

M. CHAILLU professes to have travelled extensively over the region of Africa included in the delta bounded on the north by the river Nazareth, which enters the sea in latitude 0° 41′ S. and longitude 9° 3′ E., and on the south by the Fernand Vaz, which falls into the sea in latitude 1° 17′ S. and longitude 5° 58′ E.

The internal trade with the natives is not direct between the foreign trader or the coast native merchant, but is carried on through various tribes having a limited territory on the rivers. Thus, a number of "middle-men" enforce a tax upon the export of native products, in the shape of commissions or profits upon each article. Thus, a piece of ebony or ivory, belonging originally to a native in the far interior, is intrusted to a dealer in the next tribe below; he, in turn, to the next chief or friend: and so ebony, ivory or rare woods pass through a dozen or more hands before it reaches the factory of the trader on the coast. Each of the tribes assumes to itself the privilege of acting as a go-between or *middle-man* to those next to it, and charges a heavy per centage or profit; and no infraction of this rule is permitted, under penalty of war. (Page 34.)

The far interior tribes are kept in ignorance of the high prices obtained for their products on their receipt at the coast trading points, and are compelled to submit to a loss of 75 or 90 per cent. in the net proceeds, and then take their pay in foreign coarse manufactures. All direct intercourse between the coast and the interior tribes is discouraged, and all possible obstacles thrown in the way of communication between the trader and the first source of supply. Upon the arrival of a ship, the captain is informed, that "never was there such a dearth of ivory," or whatever the captain may want; "never were the interior tribes so obstinate in

demanding a high price, never was the whole coast so bare, never were difficulties so great." "There have been fights, captain," "and fever, captain," "and floods, captain," "and no trade at all, captain;" finally, not a tooth to be had. (Page 37.) The author says (page 40:)

"The chief product of the Gaboon country is its ivory. This is said to be the finest on the Western Coast. It produces, also, barwood, a red dye-wood, from which is obtained a dark red dye, and ebony, the last taken from the great forests of this wood, which abound near the head-waters of the Gaboon River. I have seen very large sticks brought thence, but the supply is not yet large. The barwood tree is found in great plenty along the shores of the river and its numerous tributary creeks. It is also found on the Moondah and Danger Rivers. Copal is another product of this country, but it is of inferior quality, and is not sought.

"Ivory comes down the river from the interior, by inland journeys, in great quantities. Upwards of 80,000 pounds are taken from the Gaboon River yearly, when home prices are good; for the ruling prices here are so high that traders cannot buy to advantage unless the home demand is very brisk. I suppose that the country from Banoko to Loango furnishes, in brisk years, at least 150,000 pounds of ivory.

"But, however important may be these commercial resources of the Gaboon country, I am convinced that the people will never prosper till they turn their attention more to agricultural operations, for elephants must finally disappear. This, indeed, is the great evil of all the nations of Western Africa. The men despise labor, and force their women and slaves to till the fields; and this tillage never assumes the important proportions it deserves, so that the supply of food is never abundant, and, as will be seen further on, the tribes, almost without exception, live from hand to mouth, and, with a fertile soil, are half the time in a state of semi-starvation."

One of the leading articles of export from the Gaboon country, a few miles north and south of the equator, is barwood, a red dye-wood. The continual demand for foreign fancy woods, in the American market, will require a regular supply of those that can be obtained from the interior of the Western Coast of Africa and other accessible portions of that part of the world. In fact the trade offers large inducements for the investment of capital from this country. Of the production of barwood, M. CHAILLU says:

"Barwood, as I have before explained, is a red dye-wood. It is the trunk of what the natives call the ego-tree, a large, tall, very graceful tree, with abundant branches high up, small bright green leaves, and a beautiful smooth reddish-colored bark. It is very abundant in the forests of this part of Africa. In fact, the supply may be considered as inexhaustible, the labor of bringing it to market being the most costly part of its production.

"Though great traders, these natives have no ideas about laying up a store of their products before it is wanted. This is what detains trading-vessels so long on the coast. When a vessel comes for barwood the news immediately spreads all about the neighborhood, and the men bestir themselves to get a supply down. There is great excitement among the villages; and this, particularly, if it happens that the chief of the village has friends among those to whom the captain has 'given his trust'—that

is to say, those with whom he is going to deal, and for whom he has brought goods.

"Every man immediately goes out to the forest and selects a tree for himself, which he begins to cut down. The barwood of commerce is the heart or main part of the trunk, and is red. This useful wood is surrounded by a covering of white sap-wood about two inches thick, which is useless, and is carefully cut off. Then the wood is cut into lengths of three feet, each piece weighing from fifteen to twenty pounds. The father and his children cut and split the wood and the wives carry it into the villages, and the latter thereupon claim a distinct part of the returns, which they get, though often unwillingly. Barwood is so low-priced in Europe that the natives here get but very small prices, and five dollars for a hundred billets is already a high rate. As they have to carry everything down to the sea on their backs, unless they are lucky enough to live near rivers or creeks, they have to work hard enough for the little they get."

One of the best harbors on the coast is Cape Lopez, latitude 0° 36′ 10″ S. and longitude 8° 40′ E. from Greenwich, which takes its name from the Portuguese, who formerly called it Cape Lope Gonsalvez. The bay is about fourteen miles in extent, having several small rivers which empty their waters into it at or near its base. The water is very deep near the Cape itself, and vessels of large size may sail in close to the land. The productions of this region deserve the attention of enterprising merchants. The author says:

"The region known generally as the Cape Lopez country includes all the shores of the bay, and the interior for thirty or forty miles. It has much fine land, and King Pango, if he were not a drunken vagabond, might be a prosperous king. Back from the seashore the land becomes higher and hilly, the mangroves give place to forests of palm and more useful woods, and fine prairies dot the country quite thickly. The whole of this district is given to the slave trade. It produces small quantities of ivory, ebony, wax, &c.; but the slave factory is the chief commercial establishment, and the buying, selling and transporting of slaves for the barracoons at the Cape is the most profitable business."

At Cape Lopez are found two slave factories or dépôts, one of which is kept by the Portuguese. The author narrates that upon one occasion when he was present, two young women and a boy of fourteen years were brought in for sale, and were bought by the Portuguese. The price paid for the boy was a twenty gallon cask of rum, a few fathoms of cloth and a quantity of beads. The women sold at a higher rate. Each was valued at the following goods, which were promptly paid over: one gun, one Neptune, (a flat disk of copper,) thirty fathoms of cloth, two iron bars, two cutlasses, two looking-glasses, two files, two plates, two bolts, a keg of powder, a few beads and a small lot of tobacco.

Soon after a slave schooner of 170 tons hove in sight and approached the landing, when six hundred slaves were taken off to her. (P. 180.)

The author concludes that a more general intercourse between foreigners and the coast tribes would be beneficial.

"A greater development of regular civilized trade would be a great boon to these people. Many articles, such as guns, powder, tobacco, brass and iron in various shapes, &c., have become necessities to the tribes who are within reach of white trade; but they are never obtainable in

nearly sufficient quantities, and consequently are held very precious. Now the high prices are a great temptation to the cupidity of the African, who having, by custom, rights of property in his children, often does not hesitate to sell these when other produce is lacking. He finds that one of his children is not bright, that it has no sense, or that it wants to bewitch the father. Then a consultation ensues with the relatives of the mother; they are promised a share in the produce of the sale—for they have rights also in the child—and, when they are brought to consent, the unhappy child is sold off.

"With the increase of legitimate trade such temptations will be done away with. At the same time, I am convinced that the introduction of agricultural industry, the planting of cotton and sugar for export, when these ends are accomplished, will only serve to rivet the bonds of the slave by so much as they will increase his value to the master. Now, the slave only adds to his master's ease and consequence; then, he will appeal to his cupidity. Show him that he can make a profit on his labor, and he will never consent to set him free."

Near each village, particularly near the boundaries of the forest, are large plantations carried on with industrial labor, where tobacco, peanuts, plantains, yams and sugar cane are grown in large quantities. Cotton is found growing, but not in abundance. (P. 461.)

Narcotic plants are used to excess, as is the case in Asia, Europe and other portions of Africa, as well as in America. Of the lamentable results of this poison upon the human system M. Chaillu makes the following remarks; sufficient, we think, to deter our own people from indulging in the noxious weed:

"One day during my journey I found a village in great excitement. One of the men had been smoking liamba leaves, and had run out to the forest in an insane state, and it was feared that he would be eaten by wild beasts. Such cases are not uncommon in the Ashira country. Under my own observation, afterwards, one liamba-smoker became furiously and permanently insane, and I saw many who were miserably debilitated by the habit.

"Hasheesh and the Cannabis Indica are so well known that it is not necessary to say any thing about them here. The plant is a native of Abyssinia, and Persia, and Hindostan, and is not, in my opinion, indigenous to this part of Africa. This I think, because I nowhere heard of its growing wild, and because the Ashira and Assingi, the only people I met who used it, cultivate it with considerable care. How it came hither, or how they first came by a knowledge of its qualities, I could not learn. There are among the Ashira many confirmed liamba-smokers, and the habit seems very quickly to fix itself with a fatal tenacity. Beginners I have seen fall down in convulsions from the first few puffs. Practiced smokers are seen laughing, talking, quarrelling, and acting in all respects like a drunken person. Insanity is its ultimate effect on those who persist in its use. I have several times seen men run into the forest under the influence of a few whiffs of liamba, perfectly unconscious and raving. The negroes acknowledge its pernicious effects, but yet its votaries increase, and though the plant is yet unknown to the seashore tribes, they will soon fall under its subjugation, for it is making gradual but sure advances. I never saw the leaf on the seashore, but once saw a few of the seeds in the possession of a slave in a slave factory. He was care-

fully preserving them, intending to plant them in the country to which he should be sold."

There are no doubt thousands of enterprising American merchants who are prepared to enlarge their sphere of trade in African products. The work of M. CHAILLU will furnish them much information on this subject.

TAPESTRY—ITS ORIGIN AND HISTORY.

By CHARLES TOMLINSON, Esq., *Lecturer on Natural Science, King's College School, London. Author of the "Cyclopædia of the Useful Arts."*

TAPESTRY, derived from the French, *tapis*, a carpet or table-cover, (which comes from the Latin, *tapetum*, a carpet or covering for a bed or couch,) is a name given to woven or embroidered fabrics, employed chiefly as lining or hangings on the walls of rooms or churches, and occasionally as ornamental coverings for articles of furniture, such as tables, couches, desks, &c.

Tapestry appears to be of oriental origin. Its materials were silk and wool, dyed in brilliant colors; also flax, byssus, gold and precious stones. Figures, landscapes and various ornamental devices were embroidered in the ancient tapestries, many of them apparently by hand. The embroidered curtains of the tabernacle, described in the book of Exodus, are supposed to have been worked with the needle in thread of silk, gold or wool. Embroidery and other ornamental works were extensively practiced among the Egyptians, and their figured cloths were made both by the needle and the loom. Respecting the latter, we are told that many patterns worked in colors by the loom were so richly composed that they vied with cloths embroidered by the needle. The Babylonians and other nations of antiquity were acquainted with this art, and made use of it to represent the mysteries of their religion, and also celebrate historical events. The Greeks attributed the invention to MINERVA. Shawls or hangings for the temples formed an important part of the gifts offered by devotees to heathen divinities. On these hangings the utmost care and skill were bestowed, and they were even celebrated by the poets. Thus, EURIPIDES describes a shawl on which the sun, moon and stars were represented, and which, with others containing hunting-pieces, &c., belonging to the temple of APOLLO, at Delphi, were used to form a magnificent tent. In what way the precious metals, jewels, &c., were introduced into ancient tapestry, we are not clearly informed. In the 39th chapter of Exodus there are directions for beating gold into thin plates, and then cutting it into wires for the cunning work of the ephod; and it is thought probable that the gold thread used in Egyptian embroidery was made in the same manner, and rounded by the hammer, for no trace of wire-drawing has been discovered in the ancient accounts of working in metal.

The working of tapestry with the needle can be traced, in France, to the earliest times of the monarchy. When CLOVIS and his people em-

braced Christianity, not only were the churches adorned with rich tapestries, but the very streets were curtained with them. At that time, and down to the ninth century, they appear to have been fabricated entirely by hand; but at about the latter date the loom was introduced, and shared in the manufacture, which, however, was still largely carried on by the needle, and formed the employment of females in convents and elsewhere. In the two following centuries other parts of Europe produced fine embroideries; and those of England gradually became highly prized on the Continent.

A great extension of the employment of tapestry took place in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, when it began to be applied to private use in the residences of the nobility, instead of being reserved, as heretofore, for the curtains, palls, altar-cloths and vestments of churches and monasteries. The lofty walls of stone were no longer allowed to remain cold and naked, but were covered, often by the industry of the ladies of the family, with rich hangings, on which the heroic deeds of their ancestors were embroidered with more or less dexterity, according to the skill of the draughtsmen in design and of the needlewomen in execution. The taste for these household luxuries is said to have been introduced from the East, in consequence of the increased intercourse occasioned by the Crusades. The oriental practice of covering walls with prepared and ornamented skins, united so as to form solid leather hangings, which not only resisted damp, but were capable of high ornamentation by means of gilding, seems to have suggested the use of tapestry for similar purposes, and thus to have led to a vast improvement in the domestic comfort of many a baronial dwelling. These solid and richly embroidered curtains must have saved the inmates from many cold currents of air, while their legends imparted an unwonted appearance of life and activity to the bare walls. The eastern origin of these wall-coverings may be traced in the name SARAYINS or SARAYINOIS, formerly applied in France to the workmen engaged in their manufacture. In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries the FLEMINGS, who had long been celebrated for their tapestries, carried the art to great perfection, and produced some of the finest specimens which had yet appeared. GUICCIARDINI ascribed the invention of tapestry to Flanders; but this could only apply, if at all, to such as is produced by the loom, and embroidery by the loom appears only to have followed when the fingers became inadequate to meet the demand for a well-known and necessary article. Among the early manufactories of tapestry were those of Brussels, Arras, Antwerp, Lisle, Oudenarde, Tournay, Bruges and Valenciennes. Those of Arras became highly celebrated; they were executed, as were most of the French tapestries, chiefly in wool, with a little hemp and cotton, but without silk or gold or silver thread. The richer and more costly kinds of tapestry were fabricated chiefly at Florence and Venice. In the sixteenth century FRANCIS I. established the celebrated manufacture of Fontainebleau, in which threads of gold and silver were introduced into the work. This manufacture was also patronized by his successor, HENRY II., who brought Italian workers to further French art. In the following century new edifices were erected for the tapestry weavers of Paris, and Flemish workmen were hired to assist them. But the work languished after the death of HENRY IV. It was revived by LOUIS XIV., who founded a manufacture in premises which had been erected by celebrated

dyers, named GOBELIN. The establishment was named Hotel Royal des GOBELINS, and has attained a world-wide celebrity on account of the fine tapestries executed there, often from designs of RAPHAEL, GUILIO ROMANO and other Italian painters. LE BRUN was at one time chief director of the establishment, and many fine productions are from his designs. This manufacture continued to flourish until the time of the Revolution, when it greatly declined. It was subsequently revived under the government of NAPOLEON, but never regained its ancient fame. The works executed in it were thenceforth chiefly for the use of the royal palaces, and very few were presented for general sale. Our great exhibition of 1851 presented two fine specimens from this celebrated manufactory. Both were copies of well-known pictures, the one, of RAPHAEL'S fresco in the Farnesian, in which PSYCHE is represented carried through the air by genii, and bearing the vessel which, at the behest of VENUS, she has brought from the nether world; the other, of HORACE VERNET'S picture of ALI PASHA looking on at the massacre of the Mamelukes, who, at his command, were shot by his soldiers. In both these copies the general effect, as well as much of the feeling of the artists, were preserved to an extraordinary degree, considering that the process of copying was so purely mechanical.

Of the use of tapestry in England we have many brief indications in Anglo-Saxon times. Silken curtains, embroidered in gold, were fabricated for some of the dwellings of the nobility; and, in the wonderful specimen of industry known as the Bayeux tapestry, we have an evidence of the use of linen tapestry, worked with wool, in the days of WILLIAM the Conqueror. This piece of needle-work is said to have been executed by his queen and her maidens, in commemoration of the conquest of England, and to have been bestowed by MATILDA herself on the cathedral of Bayeux, of which ODO, the Conqueror's brother, was bishop. At one time this piece of tapestry was annually hung up in the church, where it entirely surrounded the naves, and was so kept for eight days, when it was again carefully locked up. By order of NAPOLEON I. the Bayeux tapestry was exhibited in Paris in 1803, and in other large towns of France; it was then consigned, not to the cathedral, but to the municipality of Bayeux. It is twenty inches wide and two hundred and fourteen feet long, and is divided into seventy-two compartments, each bearing a superscription in Latin.

Tapestry hangings were introduced more generally in the time of ELEANOR of Castile, and began to be employed, also, as a covering for floors. The rich tapestry of ELIZABETH'S time is noticed by poets and writers of the day, and indicates an abundance which could not have been supplied by the needle. And it appears that tapestry weaving had been introduced into England in the reign of HENRY VIII., and was practiced from that time with more or less success. A celebrated manufactory at Mortlake, in Surrey, produced superb hangings for the royal palaces, &c. These were hung up on frames by means of hooks, and often at some little distance from the walls, so that concealment behind the tapestry was quite possible. This arrangement facilitated the removal of one suit of tapestry and the substitution of another to suit particular occasions, such as a royal progress, when the tapestry was sometimes sent on and affixed to the walls for that special occasion. At a later period, tapestry shared in the improvements of weaving and dyeing, but became

less characteristic and interesting as its peculiar use in recording family or historical events passed away.

Tapestry work is distinguished by the workmen into two kinds, that of high and that of low warp; (*haute-lisse* and *basse-lisse*;) though the difference is rather in the manner of working than in the work itself, which is in effect the same in both; only the looms, and consequently the warps, are differently situated; those of the low warp being placed flat and parallel to the horizon, with the weaver in a sitting position, and those of the high warp erected perpendicularly, so that the weaver is in a standing position. The loom on which the high warp is wrought consists of four principal pieces, two long planks or cheeks of wood, and two thick rollers or beams. The planks are set upright, and the beams across them, one at the top and the other at the bottom, or about a foot distance from the ground. They have each their trunnions, by which they are suspended on the planks, and are turned with bars. In each roller is a groove from one end to the other, capable of containing a long round piece of wood fastened in it with hooks. The use of it is to fix the ends of the warp. The warp, which is a kind of worsted or twisted woollen thread, is wound on the upper roller, and the work, as fast as woven, is wound on the lower. In the inside the planks, which are 7 or 8 feet high, 14 or 15 inches broad and 3 or 4 thick, are holes pierced from top to bottom, in which are put thick pieces of iron, with hooks at one end serving to sustain the coat-stave. These pieces of iron have also holes pierced, by putting a pin in which the stave can be drawn nearer or set further off; and thus the coats or threads are stretched or loosened at pleasure. The coat-stave is about three inches in diameter, and runs all the length of the loom. On this are fixed the coats or threads, which make the threads of the warp cross each other. It has much the same effect here as the spring-stave and treadles have in the common looms. The coats are little threads fastened to each thread of the warp with a kind of sliding knot, which forms a sort of mesh or ring. They serve to keep the warp open for the passage of broaches wound with silk, woollens or other matters used in the piece of tapestry. In the last place, there is a number of small sticks of different lengths, but all about an inch in diameter, which the workman keeps by him in baskets, to serve to make the threads of the warp cross each other by passing them across; and, that the threads thus crossed may retain their proper situation, a packthread is run among the threads above the stick. The loom being thus formed, and mounted with its warp, the first thing the workman does is to draw on the threads of this warp the principal lines and strokes of the design to be represented on the piece of tapestry, which is done by applying the cartoon or design to be copied to the back or wrong side of the warp, and drawing the pattern on the front of the warp, the threads of which are sufficiently open to allow the artist to see the design between them. The original design by which the work is to be finished is hung up behind the workmen, and wound on a long staff, from which a piece is unrolled, from time to time, as the work proceeds.

Besides the loom, &c., here described, there are three other principal instruments required for working the silk or the wool of the woof within the threads of the warp; these are a broach, a reed and an iron needle. The broach is made of a hard wood, seven or eight inches long and two-

thirds of an inch thick, ending in a point with a small handle. This serves as a shuttle—the silks, woollens, gold or silver to be used in the work being wound on it. The reed or comb is also of wood, eight or nine inches long, and an inch thick on the back, thinning off to the extremity of the teeth, which are more or less apart, according to the greater or less degree of fineness of the intended work. Lastly, the needle is made in the form of the common needle, only larger and longer. Its use is to press close the wool and silks when there is any line or color that does not fit well.

All things being prepared for the work, and the workman ready to begin, he places himself on the wrong side of the piece, with his back towards the design, so that he works, as it were, blindfold; seeing nothing of what he does, and being obliged to quit his post and go to the other side of the loom whenever he would view and examine the piece, to correct it with his pressing-needle. To put silk, &c., in the warp, he first turns and looks at the design, then taking a broach full of the proper color he places it among the threads of the warp, which he brings across each other with his fingers by means of the coats or threads fastened to the staff; this he repeats every time he has to change his color. Having placed the silk or wool, he beats it with his reed or comb, and when he has thus wrought in several rows over each other, he passes around to see what effect they have, in order to reform the contours with his needle if there be occasion. As the work advances, it is rolled upon the lower beam, and as much warp is unrolled from the upper beam as suffices. When the pieces are wide several workmen may be employed at once.

The loom or frame on which the low warp is wrought is much like that of the weavers. The principal parts are two strong pieces of wood, forming the sides of the loom, and bearing a beam or roller at each end. They are sustained at bottom with other strong pieces of wood in the manner of trestles; and, to keep them the firmer, they are likewise fastened to the floor with a kind of buttresses, which prevent any shaking, though there are sometimes four or five workmen leaning on the forebeam at once. The rollers have each their trunnions, by which they are sustained; they are turned by large iron pins, three feet long. Along each beam runs a groove, in which is placed the *wich*, a piece of wood of about two inches diameter, and almost of the length of the roller; this piece fills the groove entirely, and is fastened from space to space by wooden pins. To the two *wiches* are fastened the two extremities of the warp, which is wound on the further roller, and the work, as it advances, on the nearer. Across the two sides, almost in the middle of the loom, passes a wooden bar, which sustains small pieces of wood, not unlike the beam of a balance. To these pieces are fastened strings, which bear certain spring-staves, with which the workman, by means of two treadles under the loom, on which he sets his feet, gives a motion to the coats, and makes the threads of the warp rise and fall alternately. Each loom has more or fewer of these spring-staves, and each staff more or fewer coats, as the tapestry consists of more or fewer threads.

The design or painting which the workman is to follow is placed underneath the warp, where it is sustained from space to space with strings, by means of which the design is brought nearer the warp. The loom being mounted, there are two instruments used in working it, the reed

and the flute. The flute does the office of the weaver's shuttle; it is made of a hard polished wood, three or four lines thick at the ends, and somewhat more in the middle, and three or four inches long. On it are wound the silks or other materials to be used as the woof of the tapestry. The comb or reed is of wood or ivory; it has usually teeth on both sides; it is about an inch thick in the middle, but diminishes each way to the extremity of the teeth; it serves to beat the threads of the woof close to each other, as fast as the workman has passed and placed them with his flute among the threads of the warp. The workman is seated on a bench before the loom, with his breast against the beam, only a cushion or pillow between them; and in this posture, separating with his fingers the threads of the warp, that he may see the design underneath, and taking a flute, mounted with a proper color, he passes it among the threads, after having raised or lowered them, by means of the treadles moving the spring-staves and coats. Lastly, to press and close the threads of the silk or yarn, &c., thus placed, he strikes each course (*i. e.*, what the flute leaves in its passing and coming back again) with the reed.

The usual widths of tapestry were formerly from two ells to three ells Paris measure; and it was the business of the ventrayeurs, or fine-drawers, to unite the tapestry into one picture, without any appearance of seam. Of late years, however, the pieces are woven of such a width that joining is seldom required, even for the largest pieces.

THE COTTON QUESTION.

I. Cotton in Georgia. II. Report of the Cotton Supply Association. III. Cotton Growing in Jamaica. IV. Supply of Cotton and Paper Material. V. Cotton in Queensland. VI. Cotton in England.

Cotton in Georgia.

Most of the Southern papers advise the planters to store their crops on the plantations and not send them to market. The *Augusta Chronicle* says:

"Why send cotton to either the interior towns or the ports? It is said that it should be ready to take its earliest chance for a market. But this is the advice of speculators and others interested in the carriage, storage and sale of cotton, and not to benefit the producer. Suppose only 150,000 bales stored in Augusta, and the blockade raised next January; it would require eight millions of dollars to move it, and as the means at hand would not be sufficient, of course the buyers would be the veriest bears, and the price go down, down, with such a supply urgently seeking market, and all to the planter's loss.

"The farmer and planter can store his cotton at a much less cost than any one can store it for him; and in fact without paying out money at all for it, and it is certainly best for him to do so, when the time of sale is so uncertain and indefinite. And as to insurance, it comes out of the producer any way, and he can have it insured at home just as well as if it were in a warehouse in town, and perhaps at less cost. He may want

advances on his crop, perhaps, but if he can get them at all, he can get them just as well while his cotton is in his gin-house and sheds. We know that in lower Georgia and the west—not so much in this region—advances are made on cotton even before it is planted."

The Cotton Supply Association.

The annual meeting of this association was held on the 11th June, in the Manchester town hall. The attendance was numerous and influential.

Mr. J. Cheetham, the president, said the present state of circumstances affecting the supply of cotton to this country, alarming as it was, did not make the arguments of this association any stronger than they were at its foundation, four years ago, though its principles might be more fully recognised now than they were at that time, by the many who then stood aloof. The leading principle of the association had been, from the outset, that this vast national interest of cotton manufacture ought not to remain in almost total dependence on one source of supply for its raw material, especially when the permanence of that source was so closely bound up with a social system liable suddenly to break down and leave us in the direst emergency. He regretted very much the indifference with which the question had been regarded among the manufacturing interest itself, as compared with the anxious attention paid to it in all circles in the metropolis. Everywhere in London the question was being asked of them, "What are you doing in Lancashire, and what is to be the result there of this crisis in the United States?" Now that the crisis seemed imminent, it was a matter for congratulation that this association had already been in existence four years, storing up information and experience that might serve to guard us from ill-considered and disastrous experiments. It was easy to report of this or that part of the world, that it was capable of supplying abundance of excellent cotton; but the point too often lost sight of was the enormous advantages possessed by the American planter. In the first place he had the pre-eminent advantage of being an Anglo-Saxon, endowed with all the skill, enterprise and ingenuity of that race. Then he had a country, the soil and climate of which were peculiarly adapted for the culture of the article, from the lowest qualities up to the very finest. He had an adequate and intelligent acquaintance with the real wants of the consumers; his own country was covered with roads, railways and navigation, so as to give him the greatest possible economy in conveying his produce to the port, and there also he met the capitalists, who gave him the means of speedy communication with all the markets of the world. What, then, were the places on the globe where we were able to contend with a competitor so highly favored?

On a review of those parts of the world whence cotton might be expected to come, it was found that, apart from the southern portion of the United States, there were only two regions possessing the very first requisite, which was labor, to employ; and those two were the West of Africa and the East Indies. Every other country possessing soil and climate fit for the growth of cotton of a quality equal and in many cases superior to that which America produced, was yet placed out of the question at present by the want of labor. And in the West of Africa, though there was labor, the people were savage, the country was desolated by the warfare of hostile tribes, and the climate, also, was fatal to

Europeans. Thus we were at present restricted to that great continent of India, which was now actually growing more cotton than any other portion of the globe. It was calculated that the annual produce of cotton in India was not less than 6,000,000 bales. We also possessed the advantage of having that country under our own government. There, also, we had abundance of free labor; there was no question of slavery to grapple with. And yet there were formidable obstacles, as compared with the position of the Americans. In the cotton districts of India there was no such man known as the Anglo-Saxon. The cultivation was in the hands of the ryot, a small farmer holding a few acres of ground, and so poor himself as to depend on bankers for his capital. When his crop reached maturity the produce was taken by the money-lender, who, of course, had great control over the price, and it very little exceeded 1¼d. or 1½d. per lb. The cotton was imperfectly cleaned, and underwent various adulterations for the advantage of the succession of dealers through whose hands it passed before it reached the English merchant at the place of export. It was worthy of remembrance, that scarcely any article exported from India had ever been brought to a satisfactory state of production, unless under European superintendence. But in India we were also without roads to the seaboard, without water communication, also, and railways were only now on the point of becoming available. Another difficulty was the understood principle of the Indian government that no land should ever be sold in fee simple to Europeans; and then there was the jealousy of the civil service against enterprising Englishmen in the interior of India, who were to this day regarded as interlopers, though an altered tone was beginning to be manifest on the part of the government. Under these circumstances, it was not surprising that Indian cotton was the worst grown in the whole world, and fetched the lowest price, so that consumers were accustomed to smile at all proposals for relying on India as a main source of supply. The movers of this association believed, nevertheless, that there was a prospect not only of increasing the Indian supply to this country, but also of elevating the quality to a level with that grown in America. The quantity received from India in the last six years was 2,974,000 bales, of which we had ourselves consumed only 266,000 bales per annum on the average, the annual excess of 230,000 being taken away to various countries on the continent. India was capable of giving us a much larger quantity than 900,000 bales, which was the amount last year. Probably we could reckon on 1,200,000 bales a year from Bombay. This association had lately been enabled to hand over the development of the cultivation of a superior quality of cotton in India to the efforts of a joint-stock company, whose chairman was his friend, JOHN PLATT, of Oldham. As soon as the season permitted, the company proposed to send out to India, as its commissioner, Mr. G. R. HAYWOOD, who had hitherto been the secretary of this association; and Sir CHARLES WOOD had placed at that gentleman's disposal the services of Dr. FORBES, who would accompany him. Mr. CHEETHAM referred again to the danger of relying exclusively on America, and pointed to the fact, that while the annual supply from the whole world, in the last ten years, had averaged only 3,984,000 bales, the annual consumption of Great Britain, Europe and America had been 3,960,000. The present price of cotton arose not so much from the actual crisis in America as from the practical knowledge that a million bales had been lost to us by the failure of the harvest.

Mr. H. Ashworth moved the adoption of the annual report of the association, which was agreed to; and the meeting was addressed also by Dr. Beke, a traveller in Abyssinia, as to the capabilities of that country; by Mr. H. Jordan, the government commissioner from Queensland; by the Rev. Mr. Arthur, who claimed pre-eminence for India as the source chiefly to be relied on for a speedy supply of cotton; by the Rev. Mr. Townsend, from the West Coast of Africa; by the Rev. Mr. Stuart, who is about to join the expedition of Dr. Livingstone; and by Mr. Heppel, the engineer of the Madras Railway.

Cotton Growing in Jamaica.

A commercial letter from Kingston, Jamaica, dated 6th June, shows that the course of events in the United States has affected trade in that island, which is greatly dependent on the northern States for its supplies of food. On another topic, viz., the cultivation of cotton, considerable interest has been developed. The writer says:

"The good to result to Jamaica lies chiefly in the question of cotton cultivation. The British, really trembling for the stoppage of supplies in the raw material, are roaming the world round to discover some new sources of supply. Now, as this island possesses as great facilities for the cultivation of cotton as perhaps any country on the face of the globe, it is not surprising that there should be a share of British capital at this critical moment—critical to the Manchester men, for it looks as if cotton no longer is king—invested in our soil. A company has been formed in England for the purpose of immediately cultivating 60,000 acres in cotton in this island. A lively interest is also being awakened to the subject in the minds of colonists, a great many of whom are thinking seriously of turning their attention to the cultivation of the great staple. I have no doubt, myself, that Jamaica is destined to be one of the future sources of supply of the raw material to the manufacturers of Great Britain."

Supply of Cotton and Paper Material.

A correspondent of the London *Daily News* says: As cotton is the all-engrossing topic of the day, and, as events are likely to prove, the all-important one, will you allow me to call your attention to another place in the British possessions where cotton and paper material are obtainable? South Africa, which is now known to be a fibrous region, produces an indigenous plant, belonging to the armyllidea family, which possesses a mass of the finest fiber, and which, when dressed, could be used for spinning and weaving purposes, and the residue worked into halfstuff and shipped to this country as a substitute for rags, (duty free,) and used as material for paper-making. There is a large quantity of this now obtainable, but it is so prolific and capable of propagation that, by cultivation and due attention, millions of tons could be produced, as I find by calculation that if the yield was only one ton per acre, a piece of land, say 500 miles square, would produce the almost incredible quantity of one hundred and sixty million tons, at the same time capable of producing five times the quantity per annum. Royal letters patent, under the great seal, were

granted in 1847 for the application of this production for textile and paper purposes, but owing to the then abundant supply of cotton from America, and the demise of Mr. CROMPTON, the eminent paper-maker, little has been done practically in the matter, though samples of the cotton have been exhibited in the Exchange of Manchester, and live samples of the plant introduced to most of our national institutions. Sir WILLIAM HOOKER, Professors QUEKETT and BENTLEY, and other eminent scientific judges, eulogize highly the qualities of the fiber, Professor QUEKETT using the following striking language: "I would particularly call your attention to the cotton bulb, the silky filaments of which are no doubt capable of being converted into the most delicate fabrics." With the aid of Kaffir and other native labor, and the improved agricultural implements science has given to the world, there is little doubt but that South Africa could supply as much of this cotton and paper material as Great Britain could consume.

COTTON GROWING IN QUEENSLAND.

Mr. M'MILLAN, having completed his purchase of a cotton farm on the Calliope River, had departed to take possession and commence active operations. He has taken with him a number of cocoanuts, to plant on the shores of Port Curtis. Mr. M'MILLAN arrived from Victoria to commence cotton-growing in this colony. He intends to begin operations at once, employing, if possible, native aboriginal labor. In this kind of labor, however, he says he has not much confidence, and hopes soon to have a draught of coolies on his land. He has to direct his attention chiefly to Sea Island cotton, and "trusts before twelve months are passed to become a public creditor to the amount of several sums of £10 each, for bales of good marketable cotton fit for the English manufacturers." Mr. M'MILLAN has evidently the most abundant confidence in them, and with good reason no doubt. He rates the population of Brisbane soundly for their sloth and apathy, but for which he says they might have developed a large cotton-growing interest years ago. Mr. M'MILLAN goes in strongly for coolie immigration, without which he seems to think there will be little cotton or any other cultivation in Queensland.—*Australian and New-Zealand Gazette.*

COTTON IN ENGLAND.

From the investigations of the Cotton Supply Association of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, and of individual persons well competent to form an opinion upon the subject, it appears that in the British colonies there are larger spaces of territory, more eligible climates, a greater amount of cheap labor for the production of the raw material of the chief manufacture of the mother country, than there are in any other portions of the earth. India or Australia, it is said, could, under conditions, alone supply our markets; large quantities of cotton could be obtained from our stations in Southern Africa, and the western coast of that continent could quickly rival the United States in the cotton export trade. * * * * * * *

The political complications of the United States may, however, produce

the most disastrous results in 1862. We have already enumerated the vast resources for cotton supply which are even now at our command.

There is yet time to render them more productive, and we have had fair warning. We do not care again to refer to the consequences to be dreaded from a real dearth of cotton in our markets. One good consequence is to be anticipated from the present alarm; it will destroy for ever the monopoly of the United States, and will convert our manufacturers to the judicious policy of free competition among many markets.—*Westminster Review.*

SHIP TIMBER AND ITS VARIETIES.

By Robert Murray, *Engineer Surveyor to the British Board of Trade.*

I. Acacia. II. Alder. III. Birch. IV. Box. V. Cedar. VI. Chestnut. VII. Cypress. VIII. Hornbeam. IX. Lignum Vitæ. X. Maple. XI. Mahogany. XII. Poplar. XIII. Sycamore. XIV. Walnut.

We propose to describe a few species of timber trees, of minor importance to the builder, but still useful for many purposes of construction.

Acacia is of small dimensions, seldom exceeding two feet in diameter, but when used in house-carpentery is very durable. It is harder, tougher and more elastic than the best oak. It is a valuable timber for tree-nails for ship-building: also, for posts and rails for fences, in which capacity it is very enduring.

Alder.—The wood of this tree lasts a long time under water, which renders it valuable for piles, water-pipes, &c. It has a close texture, a fine color, and works well under the plane, which makes it a favorite with the cabinet-maker. The best charcoal for gunpowder is made from this wood. When burned in the open air, 1,000 lbs. of the ashes yield 65 lbs. of potash.

Birch.—This wood is hard but not very durable. It is chiefly used for making cheap furniture and for firewood.

Box is a valuable wood, being very close-grained, hard and heavy, and cuts very clean under the chisel or graving-tool, being, therefore, used almost exclusively by the wood-engraver. Being susceptible of a fine polish, it is much used by the turner, mathematical instrument maker, &c. It is also very durable.

Cedar (*Cedrus pinus*) grows to a great size; the timber is resinous, of a reddish-white color, light and spongy in its texture, easily worked, but apt to shrink and warp if great attention be not paid to the seasoning. It was much valued by the ancients for its durability and preservative properties. The wood is odoriferous, and admirably adapted for joiner-work, being light and easily worked. Although a resinous wood, it contains but a small quantity of that substance. It resists the attack of insects.

Cedar, Indian, (*Cedrus deodara,*) is also a very large tree. The wood is very compact, highly impregnated with resin, and possessed of a hard and fine grain. Its durability, when exposed to the weather, is very great; some bridges constructed of it in India have lasted for five hundred years. It is much used by the Hindoos in their buildings.

Chestnut (*Castanea*) has been already mentioned as a very excellent timber for building purposes. The horse-chestnut, on the other hand, is a soft, inferior wood, of but little strength or durability. It resists moisture, however, and may be advantageously used for water-pipes under ground.

Cypress is a fine-grained wood, remarkable for its great durability and its freedom from injury by worms or insects. Owing to this property it was employed in Egypt for mummy-cases.

Hornbeam is a hard, heavy, tenacious wood, very close grained. It is much used for cogs of wheels and other engineering purposes, where the material is exposed to friction.

Lignum Vitæ is a very hard, dense wood, much used by millwrights and turners; its chief use, however, is for the sheaves of blocks. It is also employed by the engineer for lining the sockets of shafts, which are found to revolve in it with little friction and wear.

Lime, though a highly ornamental tree, and growing to a great size, is not of much value for its timber, which is soft and light, and deficient in strength and durability. Being close grained and smooth in its texture, however, it is well adapted for carving and cabinet-work.

Maple is a clean, white wood, prized for its lightness, and is used by the turner for making dishes, bowls and trenchers, and by the joiner for common furniture. As it is not liable to warp or split, it is readily stained to imitate mahogany and other woods.

Plane.—The wood of this tree much resembles the beach. It is used by the joiner and cabinet-maker, but is not remarkable for strength or endurance. It keeps best under water, and is used in America for quays and other marine works.

Poplar.—The wood of this tree (of which several kinds are grown in this country) is much used by builders for floors, especially as it does not easily split by driving nails into it, and it has the property of not readily catching fire. When used for this purpose, however, it requires from two to three years seasoning, as it shrinks much in drying.

Sycamore, when kept dry, is durable, but is readily attacked by the worm. It is a species of maple, and is possessed of similar qualities.

Walnut is one of the most valuable of English timbers. The wood is solid and compact, easy to work, not liable to crack or warp, and handsome in appearance; it is, therefore, much used for the better class of furniture. The screws of presses and gun stocks are generally made of it. The black Virginia walnut is the most prized. It prefers hilly, calcareous soils.

Willow is a soft, smooth, light wood, of little value; but, if kept dry, it will last a long time in situations where much strength is not required.

Yew was principally used of old for the making of bows, and is now a favorite wood with turners, from the smoothness and toughness of its grain, and from its taking a high polish. It sometimes attains an extraordinary bulk. At Gresford, near Wrexham, there is a yew 29 feet in circumference at a little distance below the branches; and in Dibden churchyard, New-Forest, there is a yew tree measuring 30 feet in girth at the ground, while others, of large size, occur at Iffley, Hampton Court, Dorly-in-the-Dale, Tisbury and other places. When found growing in churchyards, they may be generally reckoned as coeval with the church itself.

ght or density of a timber is, in general, a sure index to its densest wood being at the same time the strongest and the The oak, as well as all other timbers, varies in its spe- rding to the soil which produces it, the density mainly he length of time occupied in the formation of the which grow fast, from being located on moist, sandy h strong timber as others of slower growth. It iment, that the bottom part of the trunk, with is denser and stronger than the upper part of which are suffered to complete their full ut down, have their heart-wood through- th, taking a cross section of the trunk are felled prematurely are found to tral portion of the wood only, which hat immediately surrounding the sap- been overgrown, on the other hand, the d is the weakest, the process of natural decay the heart of the tree. It is a common thing to ne fine tree (blown over by the wind, perhaps,) which, eye, looks perfectly sound and flourishing, to be already by the spreading filaments of the dry rot, which have at- so soon as its vigor began to flag. The age at which oak tim- is at its prime is generally supposed to be from eighty to a hundred years, although this depends, as we have before explained, upon the nature of the soil on which it is grown. The weight of good oak timber is about 60 lbs. in the green state; and, when seasoned, about 50 lbs. If the seasoning is carried beyond this by artificial desiccation, the strength of the timber is impaired.

The decay of wood by the growth of fungus, denominated dry-rot, may be traced to the putrifying of the sap, when this has been left within the pores of the timber in the same condition as it exists in the living tree. The various means which are employed to arrest this destructive fermentation are, either to wash out the sap by long soaking in water aided by the action of the sun; to dry up the sap, either naturally by exposure to the sun and wind, or artificially by baking, or by heated currents of air; or else by injecting into the pores of the wood some metallic salt, to combine with the albumen and render it insoluble, or some antiseptic substance to preserve the vegetable tissue. The processes of natural seasoning and artificial desiccation, being those most in use for the preservation of ship-timber, will be found amply described in the article Ship-Building; also, the best mode of creosoting, although the latter process, from the increased inflammability and the strong smell it imparts to timber, is scarcely applicable to the building either of ships or houses. For the preservation of railway-sleepers and other wood-work out of doors, which is not particularly liable to danger from fire, the creosoting process has been proved to be most valuable. Its efficiency depends, in a great measure, upon the mode of operation, and the quantity of creosote injected into the timber, which should be done under pressure in a closed cylinder. The process is most applicable to fir and other soft woods, which should imbibe at least seven pounds of the creosote oil per cubic foot; oak imbibing not more than two or three pounds, even under a pressure of 120 pounds per square inch. This substance

seems to act, firstly, by coagulating the albumen; secondly, by furnishing a water-proof covering to the fiber of the wood; and, thirdly, by preventing the putrefaction of the sap by its antiseptic properties.

The various processes for the preservation of timber, by the absorption of metallic salts, have all more or less failed in practice, and are now very generally abandoned. These are known by the names of the inventors, as RYAN'S, MARGARY'S, BURNETT'S and PAYNE'S processes. The object sought by each of the three first of these methods was to coagulate the albumen in the capillary tubes of the timber and thus prevent or retard the putrefaction of the sap. RYAN used chloride of mercury for this purpose, dissolving, at first, one pound of the salt in four gallons of water; but as it was found that the wood absorbed about six or seven pounds of this costly salt per load, more water was added to lessen the expense, until the solution became so weak as, in a great measure, to lose its effect. This process has, therefore, been entirely abandoned. The salt employed by MARGARY was sulphate of copper, which, being much cheaper than chloride of mercury, could be used as a stronger solution. Its efficacy, however, has proved doubtful in many cases, while in not a few instances it has failed altogether. Better than either of the preceding is Sir WILLIAM BURNETT'S plan of injecting a solution of chloride of zinc, in the proportion of about one pound of the salt to four or five gallons of water. This process is still in use, and has certainly proved beneficial in a great many cases, but it cannot always be relied upon. PAYNE'S process consisted in the successive injection of two substances in solution; the first, a metallic or earthy solution, and the second, a decomposing fluid; the consequence being, that the capillary tubes of the timber became filled with an insoluble substance. The process of creosoting timber, already referred to, was first patented by Mr. BETHELL, in the year 1848. One great advantage of creosoted timber is, that it perfectly resists the attacks of marine worms and insects, as well as the white ant of India, which is more than can be said for timber prepared with solutions of metallic salts. Even that prepared with corrosive sublimate (as in RYAN'S patent) has no immunity in this respect, the albumen appearing to neutralize the poisonous property of the salt.

For ship-building purposes such chemically-prepared or "salted" timber is scarcely to be recommended, as it attracts much moisture and is very destructive to the metal fastenings. Empyreumatic oils and resinous solutions, although these certainly render the wood impervious to moisture, and preserve the iron or metal bolts from oxidation, are still very objectionable from the increased inflammability which they impart to the structure. The time necessarily required in preparing the wood with the preservative substance is also a great drawback to its employment in ship-building, where a delay of even two or three days, more especially in repairing, is often of serious consequence; and it should be remembered, the timber must be operated upon after it has been shaped or "converted." Timber may be very perfectly preserved from subsequent decay by long submergence in shallow salt-water, or, which is still better, in salt mud. When thus treated for a period of from ten to twenty years, the sap gets thoroughly washed out of the pores of the wood by the alternate absorption and expulsion of air or other gases caused by successive variations of temperature. It need scarcely be hinted, however, that such a mode of procedure, though sometimes

adopted in government dock-yards, would be ruinously expensive to the private ship-builder. Having pointed out the fatal objections generally attending the use of chemically-prepared timber for ships or houses, it remains to show what means can be employed (and that with tolerable certainty) for preserving the timber of these structures from premature decay. The means at our command for this purpose are summed up in the two words, "seasoning" and "ventilation;" namely, thorough seasoning or drying of the timber on shore, when this is practicable; but, by all means, good ventilation on board. If these well-known and universally approved principles were but carried out in an honest and common-sense fashion, we should hear but little of rotten gun-boats, or heavy repairs to frigates after a first commission. Though it is undoubtedly true that the closely packed timbers and double planking of a vessel of war present great obstacles to a thorough ventilation of the bottom, much may still be done by conducting currents of air down into the hold and between the timbers by means of wind-sails, or, if necessary, by fanners, worked either by steam or hand, and by so arranging the internal accommodation that there may be as little stagnation of air as possible. However well seasoned and dry the timber may be when the ship is launched, it will rapidly absorb moisture from the damp atmosphere of the hold, unless evaporation from its surface be kept up by a forced circulation of air.

It is certainly unbecoming the scientific character of the age that ships built hurriedly and cheaply, and of very inferior timber, by what are contemptuously called "slop" builders, are known to resist the ravages of dry-rot much better than the expensively and elaborately constructed ships of Her Majesty's dock-yards; nay, more, that these same "slop-built" ships, even when constructed entirely of green timber, (as they frequently are,) will last longer than a government ship built with the best seasoned oak.

The whole secret is, of course, the internal ventilation of the hold and frame of the ship. In a cheaply-built merchant-ship the timbers are spaced some distance apart, and the ceiling planks are not placed so close together as hermetically to seal the spaces between the timbers, the consequence being that good ventilation is maintained amongst the planks and timbers of the bottom and sides. Even when such a ship is built of green wood, the circulation of air is generally sufficient to season the timber in its place and prevent its decay, for the dry-rot fungus will not thrive in an atmosphere less moist and stagnant than that of an underground cellar. The shrinkage of green timber in such a case would also conduce to its preservation, by admitting the air between the ceiling planks.

These remarks are not intended to excuse the use of unseasoned timber in ship-building, a practice which should be resorted to only from dire necessity, but rather to show that if ships built of green timber can be preserved by what may be termed accidental ventilation, those built of seasoned timber should, *á fortiori*, be still more easily preserved by systematic ventilation. The action of heat in causing an upward current of air naturally suggests itself as a ready means of effecting this object on board ship. The dry-rot has been frequently arrested in a ship by thoroughly drying the timbers, holes having been previously cut in the ceiling planks to promote circulation. Yachts and other small vessels,

when not in use, may be preserved from dry-rot by hauling them out of the water in an exposed situation where the wind will get to them, keeping sky-lights and hatches open, and if a plank be removed from the bottom they are all the safer. Should they be entirely closed up, on the other hand, the dry-rot will flourish within like mushrooms in a hot-bed.

Sap-wood should always be removed from the timbers and planks of a ship, as, from its spongy texture and imperfect development, it is more liable to dry-rot than the heart-wood (besides being much weaker;) and when the dry-rot has once commenced, either in a ship or a house, it is rapidly propagated by contagion. The process of seasoning timber quickly by a current of heated air will be found amply detailed in the article Ship-Building.

Timber is bought and sold by solid measure, according to the number of cubic feet in the tree or log. The measurement of timber is therefore the operation by which these cubic contents are determined; that is, multiplying together the three dimensions, the mean length, the breadth and the depth of each log. If the log should vary much in size in different parts, then the length, breadth and depth of each of these parts must be multiplied together, and the contents of the log will be the sum of the products. When the log tapers, a mean breadth or depth is taken; the object in every case being, to attain the most correct approximation to the contents of the log. In measuring rough logs it is, however, usual to gird the log at the measuring place with a string, and then, folding the string into four equal parts, to assume this fourth part of the girth to be one side of the square area at the measuring place; which area, when multiplied by the length, will give the solid contents of the log. The arithmetical operation, simple as it is, is universally superseded by the more simple and far more correct plan of referring to published tables of contents, calculated for every foot in length of a log, and every quarter of an inch in the side of the square. Those most generally used for this purpose are in Hoppers' *Practical Measurer.*

In measuring standing timber the length is taken as high as the tree will measure 24 inches in circumference, less than which measurement is not considered as timber. At half this height the measurement for the mean girth of the timber in the stem of the tree is taken; one-fourth of this girth is assumed to be the side of the equivalent square area. The buyer has in general the option of choosing any spot between the butt-end and the half-height of the stem as the girding-place. All branches, as far as they measure 24 inches in girth, are measured in with the tree as timber. An allowance, which varies according to circumstances, is generally deducted for the bark. In oak it is from about one-tenth to one-twelfth of the circumference at the girding place; in other sorts of timber it is less. In all, however, this allowance depends much upon special agreement.

It is usual to speak of timber by the load, which means 50 cubic feet of squared timber, or 40 cubic feet of rough timber. A load of plank is dependent upon its thickness. Thus, it will require 200 square feet of three-inch plank to make the load of 50 cubic feet; therefore, the load of plank is the number of square feet of its respective thickness which is necessary to make the load of 50 cubic feet. Deals are measured according to their thickness and lengths, by the hundred, reckoning 120 to the hundred.

PRINCIPAL PLANTS AND THEIR USES.

EAGLEWOOD—BARWOOD—BRAZILETTO-WOOD—CASSIA—GUM COPAL—ACACIA.

WE are indebted for the following summary to the monthly *Chemist and Druggist*, London, 1861.—EDS. M. M.

ALOEXYLUM.—One of the two sorts of Calambac, Eaglewood or Lign Aloes, a fragrant substance, more grateful to Oriental nations than any other perfume, is the produce of the species *Agallochum*. LOUREIRO states that it consists of a concretion of the oily particles into a resin in the centre of the trunk, being brought on by some disease of which the tree ultimately dies. It is said to be stimulant, corroborant, cephalic and cardiac, and its scent is stated to be employed against vertigo and paralysis.

BAPHIA.—The dyewood, known under the name of Camwood or Barwood, is the produce of the species *Nitida*. It is stated to be employed, in conjunction with sulphate of iron, in the production of the dark red color of the English Bandana handkerchiefs.

BAUHINIA.—Fibers which are employed for the purpose of making ropes are obtained from the species *Parviflora*, *Racemosa* and *Vahlii*. A brownish-colored gum is said to be produced by the species *Emarginata* and *Retusa*. The buds and dried flowers of the species *Tomentosa* are said to be employed by the Indian practitioners in dysenteric affections. An astringent bark is yielded by the species *Variegata*, which is used in medicine, and also for dyeing and tanning leather. Various other species are reported to be employed in Brazil for their mucilaginous properties.

CÆSALPINEA.—Braziletto-wood, which yields fine red and orange colors, is said to be the produce of the species *Braziliensis*. Brazilwood, employed for dyeing red, rose-color and yellow, is stated to be yielded by the species *Crista*. Nicaragua, Lima or Peachwood, employed for dyeing red or peach-color, is produced by the species *Echinata*. The exact species yielding these three dyewoods cannot, however, be said to have been yet determined with certainty. The wood of the species *Echinata* is stated to possess tonic properties. The legumes of the species *Coriaria*, "the Libidibi, or Divi-divi pods," furnish us with one of the most astringent substances known; they are extensively employed for tanning purposes. The roots of the species *Moringa* and *Nuga* are said to be diuretic. An oil is stated to be obtained from the species *Oleosperma*. The legumes of the species *Papai*, termed Pi-pi, are employed for similar purposes to those of the species *Coriaria*, but are very inferior to them. The Bukkum, Bookum or Sappan-wood of India, used for dyeing red, is the produce of the species *Sappan*. The root known as Sappan-root, or yellow-wood, is employed for dyeing yellow.

CASSIA.—The seeds of the species *Absus* are very bitter, and somewhat aromatic and mucilaginous. They are employed in Egypt as a remedy for ophthalmia, under the title of Chichon, or Cismatan. The bark of the species *Auriculata* is stated by ROXBURGH to be employed in medi-

cine, and for the purposes of tanning and dyeing leather; the flowers are said to be used for dyeing yellow. The pulp of the fruit of the species *Fistula* (*Cathartocarpus Fistula*) possesses purgative properties, and is officinal in our pharmacopœia. That of the species *Braziliana*, which is probably only a variety of the above, has a larger, longer and rougher fruit. It is employed in veterinary medicine, under the title of Horse Cassia, and possesses similar properties. The several kinds of Senna met with in commerce consist of the leaflets of various species, but the exact species yielding some of them cannot at present be said to have been accurately determined. The species *Officinalis* var. *Lanceolata*, and the species *Obovata*, are generally considered to be the source of the Alexandrian Senna. The common East Indian, Mecca or Bombay Senna is considered by Royle to be the produce of the species *Officinalis* var. *Acutifolia*. Pereira attributes it to the species *Elongata* of Lemaire, while Forskal states it to be from the species *Lanceolata* of Forskal and Lindley. Tinnevelly Senna is said to be furnished by the species *Officinalis* var. *Elongata*. (*C. Lanceolata* of Royle.) These are the three kinds which are officinal in our pharmacopœias, and are generally employed in this country. Alexandrian Senna is frequently adulterated with the leaves of *Solenostemma* (*Cynanchum*) *Argel*. Nat. Ord. Asclepiadaceæ. The Asclepias, or Milkweed order, *Tephrosia Apollinea*. Nat. Ord. Leguminosæ, &c. These sophistications may at once be detected by the leaflets being *equal*-sided at their base, whereas the Sennas are all *unequal*. Tripoli Senna is stated to be the produce of the species *Œthiopica*, American of the species *Marilandica*, and Aleppo of *Obovata*.

Ceratonia.—The fruit of the species *Siliqua*, known as Carob, Locust, Algaroba Bean, St. John's Bread, possesses a sweet, nutritious pulp, supposed by some to have been the food of St. John in the wilderness. It is said to be used in the south of Spain as a food for horses, and is now imported into this country as a food for cattle. Singers are said to chew it for the purpose of improving their voice. The seeds are stated to have been the original carat weights of the jewellers.

Codarium.—The fruit of the two species *Acutifolium* and *Obtusifolium*, known as Brown and Velvet Tamarinds in Sierra Leone, have an agreeable pulp, which is eaten.

Copaifera.—Several species of this genus, if not all, furnish the oleoresin known as Balsam of Copaiba, the quality of which, probably, varies with the species. Among the principal species are probably *Coriacea*, *Langsdorfii*, *Multijuga*, *Officinalis*, &c. The species *Bracteata* and *Pubiflora* furnish the Purple-heart or Purple-wood of Guiana, which is largely employed for mortar beds and the manufacture of musket ramrods.

Dialium.—The species *Indicum* yields a fruit having a delicate, agreeable pulp, less acid than that of the Tamarind. It is termed the Tamarind Plum.

Eperua.—The species *Falcata* is the Wallaba tree of Guiana, which, according to Sir R. Schomburghk, yields a very durable wood, of a deep red color, frequently variegated with whitish streaks. The bark is bitter, and is stated to be used by the Arawaak Indians as an emetic.

Gleditschia.—The species *Triacantha* yields a fruit similar to that of the *Ceratonia Siliqua*. In North America it is termed the Honey Locust.

Guilandina.—The species *Bonduc*, or Nicker tree, yields a bitter tonic

bark. The seeds are very bitter, emetic and tonic, and the leaves are stated to possess discutient properties.

Hæmatoxylon.—The species *Campechianum* yields the wood commonly known as Logwood, employed in medicine as an astringent and tonic, and also for dyeing and other purposes. It contains two crystalline coloring principles, hæmatin and hæmatoxylin.

Hymenœa.—The species *Courbaril*, West Indian Locust tree, is supposed to yield Gum Anime, or East Indian Copal. The inner bark is stated to possess anthelmintic properties. The fruit contains a mealy substance, which is sweet and pleasant; when boiled and allowed to ferment it is said to form an intoxicating drink, resembling beer. The timber is close-grained and tough, and is employed by ship-carpenters for planking vessels, &c. The species *Verrucosa* probably yields some of the East Indian Copal. A species of this genus probably yields Mexican Copal. Brazilian Copal is thought to be furnished by several species of this genus, and by *Trachylobium Martianum*, a plant belonging to the same sub-order. Several species of the genus, together with *Guibourtia Copallifera*, are probably the source of the substances known as African Copal, African Yellow Gum and African Red Gum.

Mora.—The wood of the species *Excelsa*, a large tree, a native of Guiana, is largely employed for ship-building, under the name of Morawood.

Parkinsonia.—The stems of the species *Aculeata* furnish useful fibers.

Poinciana.—The leaves of the species *Pulcherrima* are stated to possess purgative properties, and the roots are said to be tonic.

Swartzia.—A powerful sudorific, known as Panococco Bark, is obtained from the species *Tomentoso*; the wood is stated to be very hard and intensely bitter. The seeds of the species *Triphylla* are stated to be excessively acrid.

Tamarindus.—The fruit of the species *Indica* constitutes the well-known Tamarind, which, when preserved with sugar, forms a very agreeable confection. The pulp is acidulous, sweet and agreeable, and is an officinal article in the *Materia Medica* of our pharmacopœia. It is employed in the preparation of a cooling, laxative drink.

Sub-Order Mimoseæ.

General Properties.—The production of gum and the presence of astringent principles are the chief characteristics. Some possess emetic qualities, a few are stated to be purgative, and a small number are reputed to be poisonous.

Principal Plants and Uses.

Acacia.—The various varieties of gum are obtained from this genus. Gum Arabic is principally obtained from the species *Vera* and *Nilotica* of Delile. The species *Arabica* and *Speciosa* yield East Indian Gum; the species *Affinis*, *Decurrens* and *Mollissima*, South Australian; the species *Karoo*, Cape; and the species *Adansonii*, *Seyal*, *Vera*, *Verek*, &c., Gum Senegal. The gum of one of the species is stated to constitute an important article of food to the natives of the Swann River. The wood of the species *Arabica* is employed in India for making wheels

and tent-pegs, and its bark is reputed a powerful tonic, and, together with that of the species *Catechu*, is extensively used under the name of Babool. The powerful astringent substance known as Cutch, or Catechu, is an extract obtained from the duramen or heart-wood of the species *Catechu*. It is largely employed for dyeing and tanning, and constitutes one of the officinal substances of our pharmacopœia. The flowers of the species *Farnesiana* are very fragrant, and yield, by distillation, a delicious perfume, to which powerful virtues have been ascribed. The wood employed in the construction of the stairs of the Crystal Palace in Hyde Park, at the Great Exhibition of 1851, and which, on its removal, was found to be but little worn, was the produce of the species *Formosa*, a native of Cuba. It is very hard, tough and durable, of a dull red color, and termed Sabicu. An intoxicating liquor is said to be prepared in India, by distilling the bark of the species *Ferruginea* and *Leucophœa* with jagghery water. The bark of the species *Melanoxylon*, a native of Australia, is sometimes imported, under the name of Acacia Bark. An extract of the bark, very valuable for tanning, is frequently imported. Another astringent product for tanning purposes is that imported under the names of Neb-neb, Nib-nib, or Bablah; it consists of the dried legumes or pods of the species *Nilotica*. The species *Seyal* is probably the Shittah tree, or Shittam-wood, of the Bible. The species *Varians* is said to be poisonous. Several species are much prized in our gardens for the beauty of their blossom and foliage.

ADENANTHERA.—A dyewood is yielded by the species *Pavonia*, called in India Ruktachundum, or Red Sandal-wood. (This must not be confounded with that produced by the Pterocarpus Santalinus.) The seeds are of a bright red color and perfectly smooth, and are said to be employed, under the name of Barricarri Seeds, in the northern parts of South America, for making necklaces, &c.

ENTADA.—According to HORSFIELD, the species *Pursætha*, of Java, is emetic. The large brown beans are termed Gela, and are used by the natives for washing their hair.

ERYTHOPHLŒUM.—The species *Guineense* is the Sassy tree of Western Africa. It is used in certain parts of Africa, under the name of Ordeal Bark, or Doom Bark, as a supposed test of the innocence or guilt of persons suspected of great crimes, as secret murder, &c.

INGA.—The pods of the species *Fœculifera*, or Poix Doux, of St. Domingo, contain a sweet pulp, having purgative properties, which is used by the natives. Similar qualities are stated to reside in the pulp of the pods of the species *Vera*, and that of *Tetraphylla* is sweet and mucilaginous. The species *Vera* possesses astringent properties.

MIMOSA.—The root of one of the Brazilian species is stated to possess poisonous properties. The roots of the species *Sensitiva* are said to evolve a most unpleasant odor, resembling that emitted from sewers in time of impending rain.

PARKIA.—The seeds of the species *Africana* are stated to be roasted in the same manner as coffee, bruised, and allowed to ferment in water; when they begin to become putrid, they are well washed, pounded, and made into cakes in a similar fashion to chocolate. They are stated to be an excellent sauce for all kinds of meat. A pleasant drink is formed from the farinaceous matter surrounding the seeds, and a sweetmeat is also made from it.

JOURNAL OF NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

I. Iron and Wooden Naval Vessels. II. Iron Ships. III. Revolving Ships' Rig. IV. New Patents. V. Light-House Service in Great Britain. VI. Contributions to Nautical Science. VII. Steam Ram, Defence. VIII. Masts of the Warrior. IX. Ship Great Republic. X. Names of New Gun Boats. XI. New Light-Houses.

IRON AND WOODEN NAVAL VESSELS.

According to the London *Mechanics' Magazine* the first question for discussion is the comparative value of iron and wooden ships-of-war. In favor of the latter we have a conservative party represented by Sir Howard Douglas, who is probably the ablest living advocate of "wooden walls." It is his opinion "that ships formed wholly, or nearly so, of iron, are utterly unfit for all the purposes and contingencies of war, whether as fighting ships or as transports for troops." In opposition to this opinion Mr. J. Scott Russell endeavors, and we think successfully, to establish:

1. That iron steamships-of-war may be built as strong as wooden ships of greater weight, and stronger than wooden ships of equal weight.
2. That iron ships of equal strength can go on less draught of water than wooden ships.
3. That iron ships can carry much heavier weights than wooden ships.
4. That they are more durable.
5. That they are safer against the sea.
6. That they are safer against fire.
7. That they are much safer against explosive shells.
8. That they are much safer against molten metal.
9. That they are much safer against red-hot shot.
10. That they can be made impregnable even against solid shot.

In a recent paper on the form of ships, by Robert Duncan, Glasgow, the following proportions for side-wheel steamers are given: Length, equal to ten times the beam; depth, six-tenths of beam; draught of water, seven-tenths of depth, or forty-two of beam; the co-efficient of displacement, fifty-five per cent.

IRON SHIPS.

As Sir H. Douglas has attacked the construction and sailing qualities of the Great Eastern, his opponent first disproves his assertions and predictions regarding her, and then states the facts regarding iron war-ships which have been ascertained by actual experiment. Experience has proved, first, that "when the thickness of a vessel's side is not more than half an inch, shots fired obliquely have glanced off the iron vessel which would have penetrated a wooden ship; second, that shots fired directly have passed through both sides of the ship, doing less damage to the ship directly and less damage by splinters than would have been the case in timber ships; third, that the shot holes have been as easily stopped, and more expeditiously and less expensively repaired than in wooden

ships; fourth, that their plates of wrought-iron, even five-eighths of an inch, are proof against shells; that iron plates four inches and a half thick are nearly impenetrable to shot fired from the heaviest nature of guns; and, finally, that plates six inches thick are practically impenetrable."

REVOLVING SHIPS' RIG.

The revolving rig of Capt. COLES, of this city, has just been applied to the square sails of the bark Liverpool, now lying at the dock a short distance from the Grand-street ferry, East River. The sails by this are worked from the deck; not a man is required to go aloft. A long roller is suspended in brackets connected with the lower yard, and the sail is wound up on this roller by revolving it with ropes or chains from the deck. The sail is rolled up exactly like a piece of cloth on a weaver's beam, and any amount of its surface can easily be taken in or exposed as required. This rig is exceedingly snug, and although the Liverpool (now somewhat old) is the first vessel to which it has been applied in this port, those who command her believe it will operate well, and save a great amount of labor, while it ensures greater safety. Such sails can be operated more rapidly than those which are rigged by the common method.

NEW PATENTS.

For an improved spring tackle for the sheets of fore-and-aft rigged vessels. WILLIAM WOODBURY, of Gloucester, Mass., patentee.

Mr. WOODBURY claims the spring B., in combination with the traveller C., and sheet E., operating substantially as described, for the purpose specified.

For an improvement in safety ships. E. S. WILLSON, of Saratoga Springs, New-York.

Mr. WILLSON claims a refuge cabin in combination with the layers of cement and water bed, air boxes and device for ventilation—the whole constructed and all its parts arranged substantially as specified.

For an improved life-boat. J. T. SCHOLL, of Port Washington, Wisconsin.

Mr. SCHOLL claims, first, the cylindro-conical life-boat constructed of separate slats, hinged together and capable of folding up, in combination with a water-proof fabric and metallic sheathing.

Second, he claims, in combination with the cylindrical part of the boat, the hinged folding heads.

This invention and improvement in life-boats consists, first, in constructing the body or hulk of the boat in the shape of a cylinder, terminating at each end in a cone, said cylinder and cones being made up of slats or staves which are covered on the outside with a suitable water-proof fabric and also with metal plates, all of which are jointed and hinged together so as to be water-tight, and to admit of being folded up. It also consists in two hinged heads capable of being folded up with the boat, which are within each end of the cylindrical part of the boat, and acted upon by springs, which springs and heads operate to prevent the boat from collapsing while in the water, and to keep the boat in a proper condition to carry passengers. It also consists in a revolving spring arm arranged on

the propeller shaft, in conjunction with certain spring valves which cover port-holes or ventilators through the cylindrical part of the hull, said arm being made to open the valves when the parts are above water. It also consists in a rolling carriage or platform furnished with seats for passengers, and arranged within the boat in such a manner that the boat or hull thereof will revolve independently of said platform.

THE LIGHT-HOUSE SERVICE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

According to the London *Times*, the authorities constituting the light-house administration of the kingdom are computed to be 174 in number. Of these about 170 are local authorities, empowered by various charters or customs to superintend the lighting and marking of coasts, rivers or harbors at particular spots. Then come three general authorities—the Trinity-house for England and Wales, the Commissioners of Northern Lights for Scotland, and the Ballast Board of Dublin, for Ireland. Lastly, there is the Board of Trade, which, by a recent act, requires certain prerogatives of chief control. In respect of the distribution of power, it may be observed that the Trinity-house has some authority over the Scottish and Irish boards, and the Board of Trade a controlling authority over the Trinity-house. In connection with this department, too, the general authorities have certain powers over local authorities, but they are not very commonly exercised or very extensively applied. Indeed, it is not to be supposed from enumeration that there exists any complete chain of responsibility or graduation of power. No such system prevails. It is true that the ultimate appeal lies apparently to the Board of Trade, and that board seems to have concerned itself actively with the finances of the service, but to have been rather more solicitous about economical administration than immediate inspection or superintendence. Such being the number and nature of the boards engaged, it is now necessary to say something about their constitution, and, for the sake of conciseness, we had better explain what elements they lack than what they comprise. In no one of the four governing bodies, though they are all differently constituted, is special knowledge of the subject exacted as a qualification for membership. The elder brethren of the Trinity-house having been mariners by profession, have certainly a general knowledge of the sea, but not necessarily any thing more. The Scottish board is principally recruited from the legal profession, the Irish board from a mercantile and commercial circles. As for the Board of Trade, it is, of course, notorious that its members, however able, are not selected for their acquirements in optical engineering, and of the whole matter the commissioners observe that "the government of light-houses in the United Kingdom, their management and construction, are all confined to bodies of gentlemen of various employments, none of which necessarily afford them an opportunity of acquiring a knowledge of those branches of science which bear upon light-house illumination." Very different is the state of things in other countries. In France, of course, the organization is perfect. There "lights are placed on a system that their lights should cross. They are inspected on system—the size of the flame, the quantity of oil to be consumed in an hour to produce a good light, the minutest detail is provided for and calculated to a nicety, and

the whole system hangs together and is under one man." In Spain the administration is similarly organized; in Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Holland and Austria, the service is under the Ministry of Marine. In the United States, Russia, Hanover and Hamburg, there are central boards of superintendence, constituted with special reference to the duties on hand. Even in Turkey, the service was conceived to be under the Admiralty, though the Ottoman "department" was "at a loss to furnish information."

However, we are not prepared to say that very much is provided by this array of contrasts, or by arguments to which most of our institutions would be exposed in a similar degree. We have our own way of doing things, and our way is not remarkable for simplicity or system. We are all for "self-government" and all against "centralization." We have a natural antipathy to "Boards" and we are in the habit of looking rather to results than to means. In short, if the light-house service of the kingdom is efficiently administered, we would not be likely to care much about the methods by which efficiency was attained. That would be the point, beyond doubt, on which opinion would turn, and here it is impossible to avoid remarking that the actual condition of our coast lights, as described by the commissioners, is really superior to any thing that could be expected after the description of the management. Complex and ill-organized as our system may appear, the result cannot be termed discreditable to us. The report frankly admits that Great Britain is better lighted than any other country except France, and nearly as that. The French, it must be remembered, had an immense advantage in commencing with a *carte blanche* only thirty or forty years ago, while we have a system which is the growth of ten generations. No doubt, the contrast is striking, and the effect, unluckily, is visible at very conspicuous points. The commissioners tell us that the harbor lights at Dover, Folkestone and New-haven "present a singular variety of faults, comprising among them nearly all those which can be committed in light-house arrangements." No sooner, however, does the British tourist leave his own shores than he comes at once at Calais, Boulogne or Dieppe, "to small but brilliant harbor lights, which are all dioptric, and in the construction and management of which there are displayed all the achievements of the science of illumination." Of course this is rather aggravating; but much the same may be said of a dozen other usages on the two sides of the channel. We are English, and our neighbors are French. In saying that we have said nearly all, and what is more, we doubt if any novelties of management will enable us altogether to unsay it. Many of our light-houses are admirably kept—the Scottish lights particularly, and the floating lights everywhere. In some respects we are even ahead of the French, for we supply our light-keepers with books and medicine-chests, whereas the French show no such consideration for their servants.

Still there is evidently room for reform. Much of the praise bestowed by the commissioners has been earned by the general authorities exclusively, the performances of the local authorities, with a few honorable exceptions, being greatly inferior. The evils, too, arising from want of uniformity, are truly serious. A danger signal in one place means safety in another. The system of buoyage varies everywhere; it is one thing in the port of Liverpool, and exactly the opposite thing in the port of Dublin. Even colors and flags do not always tell the same story, and of local

lights, buoys and beacons together, it is generally affirmed that they are managed on independent systems, without any uniformity, and with but indifferent results. After what we have said, the main features of the commissioners' proposals will probably be anticipated. They recommend the formation of a central Board, with a scientific staff. They consult the interest of existing bodies, by vesting the elections of certain of the new managers in the hands of the old authorities, with the reserve of a place to be filled by government, and they retain even an antiquity of title in styling the new board the "Trinity Commissioners for Lights." After adding four official members, they would connect the board for purposes of parliamentary responsibility, either with the Board of Trade or the Admiralty, and they conclude with a natural anticipation that their suggestions may result in an improvement of our light-house administration and increased security to the navigators of British waters. All this we place before the public as it is given. The discussion of the proposed scheme will follow soon enough, and we will only add, therefore, that in our opinion the results of this very thorough inquiry, though they have brought many defects to light, and suggested many reforms, ought really to make us thankful that a system so unpromising in appearance could be worked with such respectable effect.

CONTRIBUTIONS TO NAUTICAL SCIENCE.

The eighth meeting of the Literary and Philosophical Society was held at the Royal Institution, in February last, the Rev. H. H. Higgins, President, in the chair.

A paper was then read by Dr. Dobson, head-master of the Conway, entitled "Contributions to Nautical Science." Mr. Dobson said:—Of all men the sailor is most indebted to the mathematician, who has framed the rules which the sailor practices and relies upon; and computed the numerical data which the sailor takes from his nautical almanac, data which embody the practical results of mathematical problems of the very highest order of difficulty, and which have taxed the powers of the greatest mathematicians from Newton's time to our own. Nautical science, then, having thus been constructed by help of the higher mathematics, offers an ample field for simplification; and that such a process is most desirable, will be obvious when we reflect how essential a clear knowledge, both of the principles and practice of nautical science, is to that numerous and valuable body of men who are responsible for all the lives and property afloat. Such knowledge is more than ever indispensable in these days of steamships, clippers and rapid passages, when a merchant captain must strain every nerve, and, what is much worse, run every risk, in order to satisfy an exacting public, by making a passage in the shortest possible time. It is evident that the danger from an error in the reckoning of a dull-sailing vessel is much less than in that of a long, sharp clipper, on the principle, that the farther you go on the wrong road the more you go wrong. The first subject to which I shall ask your attention this evening is a question relating to practical navigation, and may be enunciated thus: "The direction of the wind and the course of the ship being known, required the direction of the sails, so that the ship

may make the most headway." This problem belongs to the most difficult class of *maxima* and *minima*, which are most successfully attacked by means of the differential calculus, and thus I first accomplished its solution. But, anxious to bring it within the reach of my pupils, I reconsidered it, and succeeded in solving it by means of plain trigonometry, and at last was rewarded by discovering the simple geometrical proof which follows. I am not aware that this problem has been published in any form. It is certainly not mentioned in any of the numerous English and foreign works on navigation that I have consulted.

In some of the most important practical applications of nautical astronomy, where two altitudes of a heavenly body are taken at an interval of a few hours, during which the vessel has been proceeding on her course, it is necessary to reduce the first altitude to what it would have been if it had been measured at the place where the ship is when the second observation is made. My second contribution to nautical science is a simple elementary investigation of the value of the correction to be applied to the first altitude to compensate for the "run" of the ship, as it is called. This value, of course, is well known; but the proof is well adapted for instruction, inasmuch as it has the advantage of placing clearly before the student the things which he is required to reason about, and is made to depend upon the rule for parallel sailings, the simplest case in spherical trigonometry. In this case, as in several others, I had the alternative of either investing a simple intelligible proof, or of giving the rule to my pupils without demonstration, and resting on authority alone, a mode of proceeding altogether inconsistent with sound teaching. These "contributions" were each of them accompanied by their appropriate mathematical proof.

At the conclusion of the paper, the Rev. J. Robberds made some remarks expressive of his gratification at the excellent and lucid style adopted by Mr. Dobson, which could not fail to be useful in the communication of information to his pupils.

LAUNCH OF THE STEAM RAM, DEFENCE.

The steam ram, Defence, was launched from the yard of Messrs. Palmer & Jarrow on the 24th of April, at Newcastle, England. The launch was of a most successful description; and the ship, as she floated to the other side of the river, was greeted by the enthusiastic plaudits of the assembled spectators and workmen. When fairly launched she drew about eighteen and one-half feet of water; and after the machinery is fitted up it is supposed that the draught will be nearly twenty feet. The next task was the removal of the vessel to the dock. A large cable chain unexpectedly giving way, however, the frigate suddenly grounded; and with all the efforts that could be employed, it was found impossible to get her off by that tide. The extreme length of the Defence is two hundred and ninety-two feet; breadth from the beams, fifty-four feet; the extreme depth, thirty-eight feet two inches. She is 3,669 tons register, and has been pierced for twenty-eight guns. The engines possess six hundred horses' power, and the speed at which the frigate is reckoned to sail is at the rate of ten knots an hour. After the manner of the Great Eastern, she is double-bottomed, and is iron-plated to the extent of one hundred

and seventy feet to two feet below the water-line. The bulkheads are covered by armor plates, which are furnished with plated doors of the same material. She is further surrounded by wing passages in the inside on each side, the object of these being to enable the men on board to pass along to plug up any holes made by guns. The armor plates with which the vessel is cased are of various lengths, from thirteen feet to seventeen feet, by about three feet three inches wide and four and one-half inches thick, and weigh from four to five tons each. Underneath the plates are eighteen inches of teak, beneath which lies the actual skin of of the ship. Strength and security seem to be the guiding mottoes by which the builders have been actuated. We consequently find that the armor plates have been bolted in with inch and a half bolts; and the edges have been "feathered and groved," similar to the deals of a floor. On the fighting deck and in the bulkheads are two doors, by the passage afforded by which cannon can readily be transferred from one part of the vessel to another. At the stern the new frigate is strongly fortified by an elaborate process, being intended to act as a steam ram; and with a prominently projecting beak, the workmanship is so arranged that a hostile ship would be struck under the water-line and immediately sunk. The stern falls in at the head between five and six feet, in the shape of the rudder; and at midships is a kelson forty-four inches in thickness, which is carried right up to the stern, and is also of immense durability. The upper and main decks are of iron; the fighting decks being composed of oak of about six inches in thickness. The magazines are within the armor-coated portions of the ship, and below the water-line; and when finished it is expected that she will be able to carry twenty 100-pounder Armstrong guns.—*Newcastle Daily Chronicle.*—The DEFENCE was floated off on the 25th without having sustained any damage.

THE AMERICAN SHIP GREAT REPUBLIC.

The GREAT REPUBLIC, said to be the largest sailing ship afloat, arrived in the Mersey on the 17th July from San Francisco, having made the passage in ninety-five days. She carries four masts, and she is 3,356 tons burthen. She has on board upwards of 3,000 tons of wheat, consigned to Messrs. FREDERICK HUTH & Co., Chapel-street. The GREAT REPUBLIC is at present anchored off New-Brighton, but when the tide answers she will go into the Huskisson Dock to discharge her cargo. She is commanded by Captain LIMEBURNER.

NAMES OF THE NEW GUN-BOATS.

Indian names are to be given to the new gun-boats now building for the government. The boats building in Maine are to be named "KATAHDIN," "AROOSTOOK," "PENOBSCOT" and "KINEO." Those in Massachusetts, "MARBLEHEAD," "SAGAMORE," "CHOCURA" and "HURON." In Connecticut, "OWASCO," "KANAWHAT" and "CAYUGA." In New-York, "UNADILLA," "OTTAWA," "PEMBINA," "SENECA," "CHIPPEWA" and "WINONA." In Pennsylvania, "ITASCA," "SCIOTO" and "WISSAHICKON." In Delaware, "IAHOMA." In Baltimore, "PINOLA."

THE MASTS OF THE WARRIOR.

The masts, spars and other gear for the WARRIOR, iron naval steamer, have been put on board that vessel by the shipwrights sent from Woolwich dock-yard for that purpose. The main and foretopmasts are of large size and strength, each measuring sixty-five feet in length, and weighing rather more than three tons. The mizzen-topmast measures fifty feet, and its weight is about two tons. The fore and main-yards are each as large as the masts of many large ships, each measuring one hundred and five feet in length, and weighing upwards of six tons. The length of the mizzen-yard is seventy-one feet. The three topsail-yards are also of great size and strength, the two largest being each seventy-four feet long, and weighing about two tons. The whole of the masts, yards, &c., for the WARRIOR have been constructed of unusual strength, under the immediate superintendence of the officials connected with the masting departments at Chatham dock-yard.

The WARRIOR'S chain cables, (two and three-eighths inch,) manufactured by Messrs. LENNOX & Co., have been tested at Woolwich and bore the strain of one hundred and one tons, ordered by the Admiralty as the regulated test, well.

NEW LIGHT-HOUSES.

Roman Rock Light.—False Bay, Cape of Good Hope.—Official information has been received at the Light-House Board through the Department of State, from the Colonial Government at the Cape of Good Hope, under date of the 17th June last, that a light will be exhibited from the new light-house on the Roman Rocks on the 16th September, 1861, which will supersede that shown at the light-vessel now moored a cable's length north of the rocks. It will be a *revolving white* light, showing a *bright* face for the space of twelve seconds *twice* every minute, which will serve to distinguish it from the Cape Point light in thick weather, as that light revolves only *once* every minute. The light will be fifty-four feet above the sea, and visible in clear weather from a ship's deck thirteen miles distant.

The light-tower is forty-eight feet high, the lower half of which will be painted black and the upper half white. From the light-house, Noah's Ark bears S. 56° W. 7-10 miles, and the Dock-yard clock W. by N. 1.65 mile.

N.N.E. $\frac{3}{8}$ E., $2\frac{3}{4}$ cables from the light-house, lies the *Castor Rock*, with only fifteen feet on it at low water, springs; its position is marked by a beacon, with a flag having the word "rock" painted on it. There are patches of nineteen and twenty-four feet between the Castor Rock and the light-house, which renders it necessary for large ships to give the light-house a berth of at least three and a half cables, when passing to the N.E., before hauling in for Simon's Bay.

In sailing for Simon's Bay, by keeping the light-house in line with Elsey Peak, bearing N. $\frac{1}{4}$ W., a ship will pass midway between the Whittle Rock and Miller's Point.

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

I. Sandwich Islands and Japan. II. Boston Imports from Liberia. III. The Ice Trade. IV. Failures in the Leather Trade. V. The Sugar Pines of the Sierras. VI. Banka Strait. VII. Trade with Thibet. VIII. The American War and German Commerce. IX. Decline of Salmon. X. Curious Japanese Documents. XI. France and America. XII. Scottish Commerce. XIII. Trade of Kurrachee. XIV. Trade with Turkey. XV. Trade and Products of Siam. XVI. New French Treaty. XVII. French Treaty with Turkey. XVIII. Mexican Coast Trade. XIX. French Wines. XX. Persian Cotton. XXI. Sugar and Coffee Trade.

SANDWICH ISLANDS AND JAPAN.

The steamer Surprise sailed from Honolulu June 16th, for Kanagawa, Japan, having touched there to take on board a fresh supply of coal. She is apparently a frail boat, entirely unfit for a sea voyage, and could not, probably, survive any severe storm. Yet, as she came from New-York around Cape Horn, she may reach her destination in safety. From Kanagawa she will cross over the Yellow Sea to Shanghai, where she is to be employed as a passenger and freight boat on the Yang-tse-Kiang River. Should she arrive there safely she will, no doubt, prove a handsome speculation to her owners, for she is most admirably adapted to the navigation of a large river like that, and will outsail anything that ever was floated there before her. Still, few could be induced to make a voyage across the Pacific in her, and, as a gentleman remarked, "none but a Yankee would ever attempt it."

BOSTON IMPORTS FROM LIBERIA.

The bark Justice Story has arrived from Monrovia, Africa, with palm oil, camwood, ivory, sugar, molasses, &c. This vessel took out the young man, Leo L. Lloyd, to Monrovia, some eight months since, with a large supply of goods from Boston merchants, who were interested in his success. She already makes handsome returns in African produce, and thus extends our commercial intercourse with that country, which we hope may be largely increased.

We understand that these African sugars and syrups are more valuable to the manufacturer, as they contain the full native strength of the article, the producers not having yet learned all the arts of adulteration of their more civilized competitors in the West Indies. We commend them to the attention of our dealers and manufacturers here, and trust the prices realized for them may lead to further shipments.

THE ICE TRADE.

The exports of ice this year from Boston, up to Aug. 1st, amounted to 74,065 tons, against 97,883 tons in same period last year. The Philadelphia *Journal* says the present price of ice in that city is 55 cents for 56 pounds per week, against 40 cents last year. The excuse of the ice companies

is, that there was almost a total failure in the home crop this last winter. Honolulu is again to be supplied with ice by the agent of the Sitka Ice Company, who will supply the article from Sitka, Russian-America. The schooner EMMA, on her recent trip from San Francisco to Mazatlan, took on board sixty tons of ice, shipped by the Russian-American Ice Company to Mazatlan, where they have an agency established for its sale. The supply of ice at Richmond, Va., is very limited. The ordinary use is stopped, that enough may remain for sickness and extraordinary occasions.

THE FAILURES IN THE LEATHER TRADE.

Mr. Commissioner PERRY, of the Liverpool Bankruptcy Court, gave a judgment in the case of Mr. THOMAS BARTON, a tanner and fellmonger, who was brought down in the great crash in the leather trade, his liabilities amounting to about £200,000. His Honor strongly denounced the reckless trading of the bankrupt—his extensive borrowing of capital at ruinous rates of interest—and his bill transactions with LAURENCE, MORTIMORE & Co.; (the acceptance and renewals he gave to that firm during three years exceeding £600,000;) and intimated that the certificate must be wholly refused and protection withheld. Notice of appeal was given on behalf of the bankrupt.

THE SUGAR PINES OF THE SIERRAS.

We were very tired when we dismounted at CLARKE'S log hut and canvass dining tent in the glorious forest, thirty miles from Mariposa—tired in body and in brain; tired by our seven hours of horseback riding, and by the perpetual feast of floral beauty and sugar-pine magnificence which had delighted eye and heart. But it did not require a long time to restore us. Half an hour's rest under one of the stately firs that towered above the cabin, and a cup of tea with our noon meal, fit for a mandarin, put us in good working trim for the afternoon's excursion. We were only five miles from the mammoth trees. An easy upland ride of an hour would lead us to the grove where the vegetable Titans we had so often read about, with a wonder tinged with unbelief, held their solemn court.

And I confess that I began to doubt, as the time for mounting again approached, as to the existence of the marvels. Was it possible that before sunset I was to stand by a living tree more than ninety feet in circuit, and over three hundred feet high? Think what these figures mean, my hasty reader, when transformed into solid bark and fiber. Take a ball of cord, measure off a hundred feet from it, cut it and tie the ends, and then, by the aid of four or five of your companions, stretch it into a circle, (if you have a parlor spacious enough to permit the experiment,) and imagine that space filled with a column of a vigorous cedar. Now conceive this tree rooted on the common near the entrance. What do you say to the idea of looking up its smooth trunk to a point higher than the topmost leaf of any elm on the Tremont-street mall, and of seeing there a bough thicker than the largest of those elms shooting out from it? What do you say to the fact that its plumes would nod a hundred feet above the vane at Park-street spire? What say you to the

possibility, if it lay hollow on the ground, of driving a barouche and four through it without their being able to touch the highest point of its curved ceiling "with a ten-foot pole?" Then think of it cut up into six thousand cords of wood.

The Mariposa grove stands as the Creator has fashioned it, unprofaned, except by fire, which, long before the advent of Saxon white men, had charred the base of the larger portion of the stalwart trees. We rode on for an hour, climbing all the time, till we reached a forest plateau, five thousand feet above the sea. This, in New-England, is the height of Mount Washington, where not a scrub can grow. Riding on a few rods, through ordinary evergreens with dark stems, we at last catch a glimpse of a strange color in the forest. It is a tree in the distance, of a light cinnamon hue. We ride nearer and nearer, seeing others of the same complexion starting out in the most impressive contrast with the sombre columns of the wilderness. We are now in the grove of the Titans. We single out one of them for a first acquaintance, and soon dismount at its roots. I must confess that my own feelings, as I first scanned it, and let them roam up its tawny pillar, was of intense disappointment. But then I said to myself, this is doubtless one of the striplings of the Anak blood—only a small affair of some forty feet in girth. I took out the measuring line, fastened it to the trunk with a knife, and walked around, unwinding as I went. The line was seventy feet long. I came to the end of the line before completing the circuit. Nine feet more were needed. I had dismounted before a structure eighty-four feet high, and should not have guessed that would measure more than fifteen feet through. It did not look to me twice as large as the Big Elm on the Common, although that is only eighteen feet in circumference, and this was twenty-eight feet in diameter. During the day I had seen a dozen sugar pines which appeared to be far more lofty. The next one we measured was eighty-nine feet and two inches in girth; the third was ninety feet. There are nearly three times as many of the giant species in this grove as in the Calaveras cluster. Divided into two groups there are six hundred and fifty of them within a space of one mile and three-quarters. Colonel Warren, the faithful and self-sacrificing friend of agricultural interests in this State, proprietor and editor of the *California Farmer*, measured the principal trees of one group on this ridge, some three years ago, and found one of 102 feet, two of 100 feet, one of 97 feet, one of 92 feet, one of 82 feet, one of 80 feet, two of 77 feet, three of 76 feet, and thus gradually diminishing, till more than a hundred trees were on his list that measured fifty feet and upwards in circumference. This crowd of majestic forms explains the disappointment in first entering the grove. The general scale is too immense. Half a dozen of the largest trees spread half a mile apart, and properly set off by trees of six or eight feet in girth, would shake the most volatile mind with awe.

Four days afterwards, on the homeward path by another trail, I struck off the track with one of our party to see some "big trees" that were reported to us as a mile from the path, near Crane's Flat. We found them. The first one we approached was the only one of the species in the range of vision, and reared its snuff-colored columns among some ordinary firs. How majestic it swelled and towered! My companion and I both exclaimed: "This is the largest tree we have yet seen; this

will measure more than a hundred feet." We gazed for a long time at its soaring stem, from which, a hundred feet above us, the branches that shot out bent suddenly upwards, like pictures of golden candlesticks in the Hebrew temple. It seemed profane to put a measuring tape upon such a piece of organized sublimity. But we wanted to know how much more than a hundred feet could be claimed for it, and I made the trial. It was just fifty-six feet in circuit, but little more than half the size of the monarchs in Mariposa, which it seemed to excel so much in majesty. There were a hundred trees in the Mariposa grove larger than this, and all of them together did not make half the impression on me that this one stamped into the brain at first sight.—*From a California Letter in the Boston Transcript.*

BANKA STRAIT.

It is estimated that upwards of 1,000,000 tons of British shipping pass annually through Banka Strait, the new channel lately discovered by Mr. W. STANTON, master and commander of her Majesty's surveying vessel SARACEN, in going to and returning from China. The *Straits Times*, in commenting on these facts, says: "The saving, therefore, effected in demurrage by the new route, to say nothing of the less chance of wrecks and other casualties, is almost beyond computation. Banka Strait has hitherto had a very unenviable reputation on account of the great number of accidents constantly occurring in the course of the dangerous and intricate passage. In the last expedition to China the majority of the men-of-war passing through got ashore, and some of them ran a very narrow escape of total loss. Her Majesty' ship TRANSIT, with troops, was entirely wrecked, but since the publication of the present chart not one vessel, adopting the new route, has got ashore. On the other hand, the passage of the Lucipara Channel is fast becoming impracticable to large ships, as the officers of the SARACEN found, in the course of their examination, that it was fast filling up."

TRADE WITH THIBET.

Mr. J. D. HOOKER writes to the *Times:* India, it is believed, will eventually become the greatest tea-producing country in the world. Central Asia, from Thibet to Siberia, inclusive, is the largest tea-consuming area in the world, but it does not produce a leaf of tea. Sixty miles only intervene between Thibet and the British tea plantations in Sikkim, but all the tea consumed in Thibet comes from China, 1,000 miles to the eastward, and over numerous chains of lofty mountains. The Russians are as great tea-consumers as the Asiatics, and they are rapidly pushing their outposts southward and eastward, towards the Himalaya; but neither does Russia contain in all her vast dominions one acre of tea-producing land. The Thibetans are, further, most eager to procure broadcloths, cutlery and a great variety of English wares and Bengal produce; for which they barter shawl wool, salt, borax, musk, flour, gold dust, amber, turquoises, copper, sheep, and ponies of a breed which is invaluable both in the plains and hills of India. With regard to the alleged difficulties of the passes, it is enough to state that every bit of wood used in house-

building in Thibet goes across the Himalaya, and that in one day I have counted several hundreds of yaks, mules, ponies, sheep, goats, dogs, men, women and children crossing a pass upwards of 18,300 feet high; every biped and quadruped loaded, according to its powers, with planks of wood, rice, millet, Indian corn, sugar, tobacco, spices, bamboos, rattans, cotton and silk stuffs, and numberless other products of the Himalaya valleys, to be bartered for brick, tea, Chinese crockery and the articles I have enumerated above. Again, no circumstance that came under my observation in India so surprised me as the fact that upwards of 1,000 continuous miles of British frontier were closed to British trade and enterprise; a frontier, too, that divided countries more diverse as to their physical characters, their natural products, and consequently as to their several wants, than any other two on the face of the globe. I have never ceased to urge, when opportunity offered, both in India and England, the importance of opening up this frontier by a route through Sikkim, believing, as I do, that the trade in tea between India and Thibet will eventually do more to benefit the latter country than, perhaps, any other whatever.

THE AMERICAN WAR AND GERMAN COMMERCE.

The present unfortunate state of political affairs in America does not yet appear to have had any effect on the transatlantic trade of the Elbe, which, in all respects, still occupies the high position which it has long maintained. Of this good evidence is given in the official returns of arrivals and departures at the neighboring city of Hamburg during the first seven months of this and the two preceding years, from which the following is an abstract:

ARRIVALS.

Jan. 1 to July 1.	*Transatlantic.*	*European.*	*Total.*	*Steamers.*	*Colliers.*
1859, ...	227 ..	2,466 ..	2,693 ..	622 ..	784
1860, ...	261 ..	2,720 ..	2,981 ..	667 ..	814
1861, ...	273 ..	2,821 ..	3,094 ..	641 ..	898

DEPARTURES.

					In ballast.
1859, ...	234 ..	2,445 ..	2,679 ..	624 ..	1,234
1860, ...	248 ..	2,627 ..	2,875 ..	653 ..	1,093
1861, ...	241 ..	2,717 ..	2,958 ..	626 ..	1,212

With regard to the arrivals from America it will be seen that there has this year been an increase over those of both of the other years; but as to the departures, a small falling off, as compared with those of last year, is beginning to be perceptible, though that is not to be wondered at; for, in the present condition of the States, a check has naturally been given to emigration, which could not fail to have some influence on ship-owners, who have been accustomed, to some extent, to rely on what they receive from passengers as a means of enabling them to meet the expenses of the outward voyage.

As far as the local trade of Hamburg is concerned, that, according to the financial returns of this year, as compared with the same period of last, is in all points of view satisfactory.—*Altona* (*August* 3) *Correspondence of the London Post.*

DECLINE OF SALMON.

The Fishery Commissioners of Ireland have reported to the Lord-Lieutenant that the salmon fisheries in 1860 were not so productive as in the preceding year, though the money value of the salmon captured probably exceeded that of many years past, and that there is reason to fear that under the temptation of the high price which this fish has attained in the market there has been a degree of over-capture which must eventually prove detrimental to the general interests. The number of fixed engines in the tideways, &c., on the seacoast has increased within seven years from 270 to 386. This mode of capture has now extended to an abuse, but, as it has been legalized by the legislature, all that the commissioners can do is to adopt as short an open season as the circumstances of each district or river require, and to enforce a strict observance of the close season. Much damage is done at milldams and factories by the salmon being tempted into the rapid current and killed by the wheels, but it is thought that means may be adopted for inducing the fish to follow the course of the river without injuring the working power of the wheel. The erection of fish-passes over weirs is found of very great service in affording the fish a free passage up to the spawning beds. The weirs are very injurious to navigation.—*London Times, August*, 1861.

CURIOUS JAPANESE DOCUMENTS.

The Consul at Hakodadi, Japan, has forwarded to the State Department the original Japanese vouchers, with the translations, for the expenditures made on behalf of the Consulate. They are very voluminous, considering the small amount of matter contained in them. One is a bill presented by Mr. Goo-so-go-yo-yau-kas-ke—whoever he may be—of Chig-gah-si-ma, Hakodadi, for sixty-two bundles of charcoal and two hundred and twenty sticks of firewood, furnished to sailors. The aggregate cost thereof, in Japanese currency, reaches the portentous figure of 48,550. Reduced to United States currency, the amount is $12 14. The bill, with signature and seal, fills three pages of Japanese paper.

FRANCE AND AMERICA.

The following statement appears in the *Proprieté Industrielle* of the 6th of June:

"Seriously occupied with the consequences which may result to French commerce, navigation and industry from the hostile disposition manifested by the two fractions of the American Union, the Chamber of Commerce of Havre wrote to the Minister of Agriculture, Commerce and Public Works, on the 4th of May, to testify its fears and to express the hope that measures will be taken by the government to protect the French interests which may be affected. It has just received the following reply from the ministers, to which it hastens to give publicity:

"'*Paris, May* 23, 1861.

"'Gentlemen,—You have done me the honor to communicate with me, on the 4th of this month, respecting the hostilities commenced

between the two fractions (*deux fractions*) of the former American Union, and of the first measures which have been the consequence of it. Finally, you express the wish that efficient steps shall be taken by the imperial government to secure the important interests of French commerce in those regions. As you have supposed, these interests are the object of my whole solicitude. I have placed myself in communication with my two colleagues, the ministers of foreign affairs, of the navy and of the colonies, and such measures have been taken that, in transactions with the United States, French commerce will receive no injury.

"'Receive, &c., E. Rouher.'"

A letter from Paris says: "You are aware that the French government, every year, publishes a large volume of statistics relative to trade and commerce. That of the present year has just appeared, and I shall have occasion hereafter to notice its principal features. For the present I may state that it shows that the actual value of all sorts of merchandise imported into France for consumption, in the year 1860, was 1,897,300,000f.; (£75,892,000;) in 1859 they were 1,640,700,000f.; and in 1858 they were 1,562,800,000f.; whilst the actual value of French articles exported, in 1860, was 2,271,100,000f.; (£90,844,000;) in 1859, 2,266,400,000f.; in 1858, 1,887,300,000f. In these items the precious metals are not included."

OPENING OF THE SCINDE RAILWAY.

(*From the Kurrachee Herald.*)

On the morning of the 13th May the first public train for passengers and goods ran from either terminus of the line, the crowd of passengers at the Kurrachee terminus being enormous. Since then, great numbers of passengers were being conveyed daily; the quantity of goods delivered by native traders for carriage, tax to the utmost the resources of the railway, one firm alone offering to enter into an arrangement for the conveyance of 140 tons per diem.

Sir Bartle Frere, on the 29th April, 1858, turned the first sod of the Scinde Railway, and, notwithstanding engineering and other difficulties, in little more than three years thereafter his successor has declared the line to be open for public traffic. The Scinde Railway is 114 miles in length, and is the first complete railway opened in India, and there appears every prospect of its being the first having its capital account closed, and paying a dividend on the capital expended on its construction.

The commissioner in Scinde has alluded in terms of commendation to the excellence of the arrangements of the administrators of the railway in India, Messrs. Neville, Warren and John Brunton; above all, calling attention to the fact that the workmen employed by the company upon the line, drawn from Scinde, Beloochistan, Bhawulpoor, the Deccan, Cutch, and from the confines of Persia and China, had all so conducted themselves that neither feuds or disturbances had ever reached the ears of the authorities. The most extensive engineering works on the line are two viaducts. The Mulleer viaduct is composed of Warren's patent iron girders, of 80 feet span, resting on stone piers, and is 1,860 feet in length. The Bahrun viaduct is built of hard, white, durable stone, found

on the spot, has thirty arches of 45 feet span, and is 1,782 feet long. This viaduct is described to be as fine a piece of masonry as can be seen in any part of the world, and has been executed by native contractors, chiefly Cutchees. The stations on the line are Kurrachee, Landi, Dorbajee, Joongshaie, Jeempeer and Kotree. Kotree, on the Indus, the port of Hydrabad, and the upper terminus of the railway, is vastly increasing in importance, from its steamers and railway, and from the establishment, by Europeans, of extensive saltpetre and other manufactories. Joongshaie, the mid-station of the line, possesses many local advantages, and is about twenty miles from the ancient town of Tatta, on the Indus. This station is evidently destined to be the nucleus of an active and enterprising community; the future town is being laid out, and building sites allotted. The Parsee and other native traders resident at Tatta have proposed to raise funds for a cheap railway or tram-road from thence to Joongshaie, and a considerable local traffic from the latter to Kurrachee has commenced.

Fully to appreciate the importance of the increase in the trade of the port of Kurrachee, it is necessary to call attention to the rapid and steady increase of the trade from the date of the conquest of Scinde, as shown in the following tabular statements, compiled respectively by the commissioner in Scinde and the Chamber of Commerce at Kurrachee. A direct trade is established between Kurrachee and London, Liverpool, Glasgow, Havre, Marseilles, the Mauritius, Calcutta, Bombay and the Persian Gulf.

Table of Imports and Exports of Kurrachee, prepared by the Commissioner in Scinde for the Government of Bombay.

Year.	*Imports.*		*Exports.*		*Total.*
1843–44,.....	£121,150	....	£1,010	....	£122,160
1844–45,.....	217,700	....	9,300	....	227,000
1845–46,.....	312,900	....	40,500	....	353,400
1846–47,.....	293,400	....	49,300	....	342,700
1847–48,.....	287,872	....	154,730	....	442,680
1848–49,.....	344,715	....	107,133	....	451,849
1849–50,.....	419,352	....	114,378	....	533,731
1850–51,.....	425,831	....	196,461	....	622,293
1851–52,.....	489,220	....	244,222	....	733,343
1852–53,.....	535,690	....	376,337	....	800,000
1853–54,.....	508,793	....	376,310	....	885,103
1854–55,.....	575,196	....	346,893	....	922,089
1855–56,.....	629,813	....	604,440	....	1,234,253
1856–57,.....	685,665	....	734,522	....	1,420,187
1857–58,.....	1,081,100	....	1,078,100	....	2,159,200
1858–59,.....	1,540,600	....	1,044,200	....	2,584,800

SCOTTISH COMMERCE.

The advices from Dundee are more cheering, the home demand for linens having improved, and most manufacturers being now fully employed. Some mills which were on short time are now again in full work. Flax is firm, and a considerable business has been done in St. Petersburg and Riga, at higher rates. The shipments of jute from Calcutta, from the 1st of October to the end of May, were 273,100 bales, against 224,400 bales in the corresponding period of 1859–60. The demand for yarns is well maintained, and, altogether, affairs at Dundee

have been looking up of late. There has been rather more inquiry for wools during the past week, but quotations have exhibited little if any change, buyers still continuing cautious in their purchases. The last official returns, published with regard to the Scotch banks of issue, show an average weekly circulation of £4,284,782, being a decrease of £249,027, as compared with the previous month, and an excess of £1,535,511 over the fixed issue. The amount of bullion held by the banks was £2,591,610, being a decrease of £77,141, as compared with the preceding return. The Glasgow Gas Light and City and Suburban Gas Companies have just declared dividends, at the rate of 10 per cent. per annum. The movement of goods of all kinds, foreign and coastwise, at the port of Glasgow, amounted, in the last twelve months, to 1,366,327 tons, as compared with 1,192,475 tons in the preceding year, showing the gratifying increase of 173,852 tons, and that, too, while commercial affairs have in other quarters exhibited considerable depression.—*Times.*

TRADE WITH TURKEY.

A despatch from Her Majesty's Consul at Gallipoli to the Lords of the Committee of the Board of Trade, of which a copy has been transmitted to Lloyd's, announces that a weekly line of steam communication, under the English flag, has been commenced between Constantinople and Tenedos, calling at Rodosti, Gallipoli, and the intermediate villages on the coast of the Dardanelles, returning to Constantinople by the same route, completing the whole voyage in a week. Independently of the facilities given by this new enterprise to local commerce, it has operated in augmenting the export trade from Roumelia to the United Kingdom. In the absence of good roads in the interior, the development of the coasting trade by means of steamers, it is observed, is greatly conducive to the interests of British commerce; to importers of produce by enabling them to lay down the articles in which they trade at a cheaper rate in England; to exporters of manufactures, by facilitating the distribution, and thus augmenting the demand for their goods; to shippers, by facilitating both the export and import trade of Great Britain, and thus creating a greater demand for freights to and from the Turkish coast.

TRADE AND PRODUCTS OF SIAM.

A series of reports received from our Consuls on the trade of foreign countries has been issued by the Board of Trade, with a promise that they shall in future be published more speedily; this may easily be, for the present series relates to the year 1858. The longest report is from Sir R. Schomburg, British Consul at Siam. He states that a rapid development of the commercial resources of Siam has taken place since our treaty, negotiated in 1855, came into operation; but the Siamese government do not as yet appreciate the great advantages of a free commerce, and fear it may be favorable to foreigners and disadvantageous to themselves. Their principal export is of rice to China, and next sugar, of which ten times the present quantity might be produced if there were sufficient labor to be had; but the extraction of the juice of the cane

and its manufacture into sugar are carried on without any of the modern improvements for acquiring the largest possible quantity from the cane and a superior quality of sugar. The alluvial districts might produce as fine cotton as the United States, but there is a scarcity of laborers, and it is bulky for transport in canoes down the river. Her Majesty's government included among the presents forwarded to the sovereigns of Siam, a hydraulic press to compress cotton into bales. Coffee grows luxuriantly, and is of a superior description; it might be cultivated to an unlimited extent. A number of woods, the produce of the forests of Siam, may become of importance. The teak wood is considered the strongest and most durable timber of India, or perhaps of the world, only the greenheart of Guiana vying with it; but it had become scarce, and the supply had almost ceased. The takieng might perhaps rival it in size and quality, if examined more closely. Sir R. SCHOMBURG saw, at the building sheds of the first king, a log of this wood, which was being prepared for the construction of a war-canoe, measuring 135 feet, perfectly sound and without a flaw. It possesses the property of being easily bent by artificial means. There are many ornamental woods, the color and suitableness to receive a high polish of which would render them valuable articles of export. A beautiful dye, of a brilliant color, is prepared from the heart of the jack-tree, which might also become of importance. Sir R. SCHOMBURG had seen silk cloth manufactured in Siam, of a green color, with much more lustre than sap green; this green dye, he was told, was extracted from a vegetable substance, procured in the forests of the interior. There is said to be a varnish obtained by incision from a tree, probably the theet, on which neither the sun nor rain has influence, and hence it is employed for securing the gilding of idols; it might be advantageously employed for gilding monuments and ornaments which are exposed to the influence of the atmosphere. The balsamic resins of Siam also deserve attention. The betel nut is extensively cultivated, to be used as a stimulant; and so is hemp, for the sake of its intoxicating and narcotic qualities, it being used in the preparation of "guncha," which has the same effects as opium; but a considerable quantity of opium, of inferior quality, is produced in the tributary provinces of Siam, on the China border. Elephants abound in the interior of Siam. The hides are sent to China, where, having undergone a process similar to that of gelatine, they are considered a delicacy. The horns of the rhinoceros are said to possess medicinal virtues. The Chinese likewise attach fanciful virtues, medicinal and invigorating, to the bones of tigers and crocodiles, and the hairy-covered young horns of the deer.

TRADE WITH FRANCE UNDER THE NEW TREATY.

The railway companies appear to be endeavoring to provide adequate accommodation for the commerce arising out of the Anglo-French treaty. Already the South-Eastern Company and their allies, the administrators of the Chemin de Fer du Nord of France, have made arrangements for an expansion of their system of through traffic by passenger-train and *grande vitesse* organized since the treaty. Further facilities are about to be introduced, which will initiate almost a new era in the transport of parcels and merchandise between the two countries. The through rates

have been reduced and simplified. They show the charge either in kilogrammes or pounds, and include all the numerous imposts that, in the absence of such a system, have hitherto been found especially vexatious. For all weights over 200 lbs., there will be a uniform rate per 20 lbs., without any limit to the weight of consignments. One item may be quoted from the scale as illustrating the cheapness at which commodities may be conveyed between the two capitals, namely: for an ordinary parcel of 2 lbs., 1s. 4d., all charges included where no duty or entry. The French customs authorities have consented to permit the landing or shipping of the goods immediately on the arrival of the boat or train, without any detention at the port, the examination and other custom-house formalities being performed in Paris. This concession is the more important, as the boats must necessarily perform the voyage at night, so as to save time and allow until the afternoon of each day for the despatch of parcels from either metropolis, and it obviates the necessity for the detention which would otherwise arise to the traffic in awaiting customs' hours at the port. It may be hoped that the English customs will follow the example and extend a similar permission, which they have long since given as regards registered baggage, and in a modified form for small parcels, and thus enable the railways to afford the public still greater rapidity of transit, the most important element in continental traffic. As it is, consignments delivered at London-bridge station in the afternoon will reach their destination in Paris on the following day, and, *vice versa*, thus completing the transport in twenty-four hours. The new arrangement has taken effect.

PACIFIC MEXICAN COAST TRADE.

Announcement is made in the San Francisco papers that the steamship PANAMA would leave that port, May 1st, for San Blas, Mazatlan and Guaymas, touching at Cape St. Lucas. It is expected she will afterwards ply regularly between those ports, carrying specie, freight and passengers, and connecting regularly once a month with the Pacific Mail Company's steamers at Manzanillo or Acapulco. This arrangement will prove of immense advantage to the present and future trade of San Francisco with Mexico, and will also be of great service to the foreign merchants established there, as the want of a regular mail and specie carrying service has long been seriously felt. The *Alta* says:

"We hope every encouragement will be extended to this enterprise by our merchants engaged in the Mexican trade; and we know, that as soon as the steamer has made a few monthly trips, in accordance with the programme, such confidence will be felt in the arrangement as will not only insure the liberal patronage of the Mexican government and people, but will undoubtedly prove this new steamship line a most profitable one to the enterprising proprietors."

FRENCH TREATY WITH TURKEY.

The commercial treaty lately concluded between the French government and the Porte is to be valid for 28 years, with power to the con-

tracting parties to propose modifications at the end of 14 and 21 years. The existing customs' tariff is to endure for seven years only from the 1st of October next. This treaty confirms all the rights, privileges and immunities previously accorded to France. Foreign merchandise destined for Servia, Moldavia and Wallachia, is to pay customs duties only on entering the Principalities, and French houses exporting the produce of the Principalities will pay the customs' duties into the hands of the Moldo-Wallachian or Servian administration. No duty is to be paid on merchandise passing through the Straits, even should it be temporarily landed on the Turkish territory. The duty charged on merchandise imported into Turkey for the purpose of being sent to other countries, has been reduced to 2 per cent., and will be further lowered to 1 per cent. in eight years. French subjects are not permitted to import tobacco and salt into Turkey except on payment of the same duties as the Turks pay. Tobacco and salt, the produce of Turkey, are not to be subject to the payment of duty on being exported. French subjects are not permitted to import firearms, gunpowder or warlike stores, but fowling-pieces, pistols and arms for ornament are not included in the prohibition.

FRENCH WINES.

The quantities entered for home consumption for the first five months of this year, compared with the corresponding period of the two previous years, are as follows: 1859, 266,965 gallons; 1860, 535,995 gallons; 1861, 1,129,775 gallons; showing an increase over 1859 of 862,810 gallons, or 18,756 hhds.; and over 1860, of 593,780 gallons, or 12,908 hhds. Such an increase is wholly unprecedented, thanks to the commercial treaty and the reduction of the duty. The greatly reduced prices have, no doubt, greatly contributed to this result, and will go far to verify the predictions of the Chancellor of the Exchequer.

THE PERSIAN AMBASSADOR ON COTTON FROM PERSIAN ARABIA.

The following is a translation of a letter addressed to the President of the Royal Asiatic Society, by Mirza Jafer Khan, ambassador from His Majesty the Shah of Persia to the Court of St. James:

"From the circumstance that this well-wisher passed the springtime of his life in this island, and received at that time numerous marks of friendship and kindness, from great and small, among the natives of this country, he has, therefore, always been animated with a desire for the welfare and advantage of the British nation. At this present moment, by reason of the events occurring in the United States of America, a great deal of anxiety and discussion is to be observed as prevailing among the owners of cotton mills. Some have recommended Zanguebar or Australia—others, again, India and various places—as most fit for the cultivation of that most useful product; but this well-wisher takes the present opportunity to demonstrate his friendly feelings, by suggesting to the president of the Royal Asiatic Society that the province of Khuristan, now known by the name of Persia Arabia, is, from the circumstances of its vicinity to the sea, the fertility of its soil, the number of rivers—as, for instance, the Kerkha, the Karan, (Karun,) the Jarrahi,

Behbehan—better adapted than the aforenamed countries—that is to say, in fact, the very best place for the cultivation of cotton. From the foot of the mountain ranges of Luristan, Arabistan and Behbehan, as far as the shores of the Persian Gulf and of the Shattee-'l-'Arab, extends a vast country, the greater part of which is capable of being cultivated so as to produce any required quantity of cotton, sugar, opium or indigo. Even as things are at present, and in spite of the want of capital and of special knowledge among the people of those parts, a portion of the lands in question are cultivated near Shuster, Dizful and Fellahigga. It is related by the Arabian historians that, at the time when the dyke of the Karun, near Aliwak, formed a source of prosperity to the environs, it was customary to place on the dinner table of the Caliph at Bagdad, every evening, a tray of bread, with a thousand pieces of gold, as derived from the revenue of that district. For this reason the district received the appellation of 'Selletu-'l-Khubz,' *i. e.*, 'bread-basket.' Besides this, the ancient name of that region in the old Persian language is Khuzistan, and 'Khuz' means 'sugar.' By reason of its producing immense quantities of that product, the country became known as Khuzistan, *i. e.*, 'Sugarland;' and it is evident that the manufacturers of England may easily and speedily obtain from those regions any desired quantity of good and beautiful cotton. Many English travellers have visited those parts, and viewed them from one extremity to another, and have become well acquainted with its circumstances. From them, too, the truth may be learned. In short, should the ideas above set forth meet your approbation, the best thing to do would be to transmit a notice to the cotton-manufacturing firms, in order that they may appoint an agent with whom the necessary stipulations on both sides may be discussed, and a definitive understanding come to in the matter."

SUGAR AND COFFEE TRADE.

We are indebted to the monthly circular of Mr. H. E. Möring, New-York, for the annexed particulars:

Imports of Foreign and Domestic Sugars, from January 1st to August 31st, and from September 1st to December 31st.

Months.		*N. York,* 1861.	*Bost'n,* 1861.	*Phila.,* 1861.	*Balt.,* 1861.	Total of the Four Ports. 1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
January,	tons,	7,160	2,042	882	298	11,703	13,141	8,883	9,877
February,	"	13,425	4,244	1,891	1,114	18,498	20,247	18,497	20,174
March,	"	30,241	4,106	3,467	3,619	32,894	38,277	31,167	41,433
April,	"	29,918	3,341	3,462	2,744	37,289	48,682	47,727	39,457
May,	"	43,074	5,976	5,489	1,168	36,088	42,961	52,081	55,652
June,	"	23,436	2,096	2,520	870	36,661	43,409	45,661	28,922
July,	"	16,252	2,883	826	408	29,859	32,646	52,262	28,819
August,	"	12,250	1,344	1,288	245	32,545	18,320	40,282	15,127
Total in 8 months,	"	175,748	25,982	18,775	10,456	235,437	258,183	296,410	230,961
September,	"	....	....	....	....	15,711	9,642	27,915	....
October,	"	....	....	....	....	10,903	7,836	19,149	....
November,	"	....	....	....	....	8,011	8,076	12,110	....
December,	"	....	....	....	....	11,002	11,742	8,879	....
Total in 12 months,	"	....	....	....	....	281,064	295,429	364,463	....

Stock of Sugar at the Four Principal Ports of the United States of America, on the 1st September, 1861.

Stock in	Total Tons. 1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
New-York,	32,248	56,291	78,055	46,900
Boston,	6,755	9,137	14,541	11,451
Philadelphia,	4,449	7,491	5,458	1,880
Baltimore,	3,297	5,370	11,052	8,326
Total, 1st September,	46,749	78,289	109,106	68,557
" 1st August,	27,983	86,907	95,050	82,076
Decrease,	....	8,618	....	13,519
Increase,	18,766	....	14,056	....

Imports, Stocks and Distribution of Sugar in the Four Principal Ports of the United States.

Imports up to 31st of August.		1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.	*Average.*
New-York,	tons,	165,659	183,947	204,896	175,748	182,384
Boston,	"	28,851	28,012	38,458	25,923	30,901
Philadelphia,	"	21,897	28,140	26,710	18,775	23,880
Baltimore,	"	19,535	18,734	26,856	10,456	18,770
Total,	"	235,437	258,133	296,410	230,961	255,235
Stock, January 1st,	"	18,103	15,333	24,140	56,894	28,493
Total Supply in eight months,	"	253,540	273,466	320,550	287,855	283,728
Deduct Stock, September 1st,	"	46,749	78,289	109,106	68,557	74,425
Distribution in eight months,	"	206,791	195,177	211,444	223,798	209,303
" Monthly Average,	"	25,849	24,397	26,431	27,975	26,163

Stocks, Receipts and Distribution of Sugar in the Six Principal Markets of Europe, up to 1st August.

Stock, 1st August.		1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.	*Average.*
Holland,	tons,	15,250	10,000	5,500	19,250	12,500
Antwerp,	"	1,600	2,400	600	2,950	1,888
Hamburg,	"	1,500	3,500	4,500	6,500	4,000
Trieste,	"	3,150	6,150	2,450	2,050	3,450
Havre,	"	1,000	7,100	6,150	6,600	5,212
Great Britain,	"	100,050	80,600	118,900	129,300	107,062
Total, August 1st,	"	122,550	109,750	137,500	166,650	134,112
" July 1st,	"	127,400	113,150	155,950	149,950	136,611

Receipts and Deliveries of Sugar in Six European Markets.

		1860.	1861.
Total Stock, January 1st,	tons,	125,250	90,850
" Receipts up to August 1st,	"	379,150	460,500
Total Supply for seven months,	"	504,400	551,350
Deduct Stock, August 1st,	"	137,500	166,650
Distribution in seven months,	"	366,900	384,700
" in July,	"	72,800	71,550
Receipts "	"	54,850	68,250

Imports of Coffee, Four Years.

		Year 1858.	*Year* 1859.	*Year* 1860.	8 *mos.*, 1861.
New-York,	tons,	41,501	41,630	33,648	37,120
Boston,	"	8,339	6,335	4,147	2,929
Philadelphia,	"	10,310	12,907	6,699	6,065
Baltimore,	"	14,498	16,837	12,561	8,286
New-Orleans,	"	23,874	26,061	20,442	9,680
Total,	"	98,522	104,270	76,517	63,970

Stock of Coffee at the Five Principal Ports of the United States of America, on the 1st of September, 1861.

Stock in		1858.		1859.		1860.		1861.
New-York,	tons,	4,755	....	6,888	....	1,982	....	10,850
Boston,	"	926	....	1,587	....	218	....	1,878
Philadelphia,	"	774	....	312	....	674	....	526
Baltimore,	"	1,070	....	1,956	....	1,072	....	1,043
New-Orleans,	"	2,500	....	714	....	429	....	86
Total, 1st September,	"	10,025	....	11,457	....	4,370	....	13,883
" 1st August,	"	6,051	....	11,545	....	3,033	....	14,211
Decrease,	"	....	....	88	....	....	....	328
Increase,	"	3,974	....	....	....	1,337	....	....

Total on hand, 1st September, 1861.

Brazil,	bags,	160 lbs.,	.....	156,068
St. Domingo,	"	130 "	.....	9,776
Laguayra,	"	110 "	.....	6,328
Maracaibo,	"	120 "	.....	12,743
Bombay,	"	150 "	.....	600
Costa Rica,	"	120 "	.....	317
Jamaica,	"	150 "	.....	....
Ceylon,	bags and mats,	..	.....	11,543
Java,	bags,	130 "	.....	4,257
Singapore,	mats,	60 "	.....	24,792

Imports, Stocks and Distribution of Coffee in the Five Principal Ports of the United States.

Imports up to 31st of August.		1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.	*Average.*
New-York,	tons,	27,908 ..	30,901 ..	20,092 ..	37,120 ..	29,002
Boston,	"	4,476 ..	5,288 ..	3,219 ..	2,929 ..	3,978
Philadelphia,	"	6,620 ..	9,133 ..	4,379 ..	6,065 ..	6,549
Baltimore,	"	8,714 ..	10,737 ..	7,215 ..	8,236 ..	8,725
New-Orleans,	"	12,284 ..	16,984 ..	11,282 ..	9,620 ..	12,580
Total,	"	59,947 ..	73,043 ..	46,177 ..	63,970 ..	60,784
Stock, January 1st,	"	22,740 ..	8,910 ..	18,595 ..	9,149 ..	18,598
Total Supply in eight months,	"	82,687 ..	81,953 ..	59,772 ..	73,119 ..	74,382
Deduct Stock, September 1st,	"	10,025 ..	11,457 ..	4,370 ..	13,883 ..	9,934
Distribution in eight months,	"	72,662 ..	70,496 ..	55,402 ..	59,236 ..	64,448
" Monthly Average,	"	9,083 ..	8,812 ..	6,925 ..	7,405 ..	8,056

Stocks, Receipts and Distribution of Coffee in the Six Principal Markets of Europe, up to the 1st August.

Stock, 1st August.		1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.	*Average.*
Holland,	tons,	46,400 ..	40,350 ..	31,400 ..	23,050 ..	35,300
Antwerp,	"	4,300 ..	2,750 ..	2,700 ..	3,800 ..	3,387
Hamburg,	"	10,500 ..	6,500 ..	6,500 ..	11,000 ..	8,625
Trieste,	"	3,600 ..	2,050 ..	2,500 ..	4,050 ..	3,050
Havre,	"	8,900 ..	4,750 ..	6,150 ..	8,600 ..	5,850
Great Britain,	"	10,700 ..	7,800 ..	7,750 ..	7,100 ..	8,837
Total, August 1st,	"	79,400 ..	64,200 ..	57,000 ..	57,600 ..	64,549
" July 1st,	"	81,600 ..	59,150 ..	56,500 ..	52,550 ..	62,449

Receipts and Deliveries of Coffee in Six Markets of Europe.

		1860.	1861.
Total Stock, January 1st,	tons,	52,250	45,100
" Receipts up to August 1st,	"	111,800	124,850
Total Supply for seven months,	"	164,050	169,950
Deduct Stock, August 1st,	"	57,000	57,600
Distribution in seven months,	"	107,050	112,350
" in July,	"	13,250	12,650
Receipts "	"	13,750	17,700

JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.

I. Statistics of Fire Insurance in New-York. II. London Fire Insurance. III. Fire-Proof Warehouses.

STATISTICS OF FIRE INSURANCE IN NEW-YORK.

Number of fires in New-York, 1854—1860. *Amount insured on property damaged and lost by fire. Amount paid for loss and damage by fire.*

	No. of Fires.		*Amount insured.*		*Amount paid for loss and damage.*
1855,.....	344	....	$3,140,930	....	$941,147
1856,.....	315	....	4,011,843	....	1,267,812
1857,.....	336	....	4,056,092	....	732,014
1858,.....	302	....	2,948,485	....	632,103
1859,.....	310	....	2,643,795	....	1,100,290
1860,.....	397	....	5,416,700	....	1,390,894
	2,004	....	$22,217,845	....	$6,064,260
Average of six years,.	334	....	3,702,974	....	1,010,710

With the exception of the year 1860, during which the number of fires was excessive, the return shows the normal regularity which the result of similar statistics in the Old World naturally led us to expect. The average number of fires per annum, as shown in the above table, is 334, from which 1860 differs by an excess of 63. The average in the years 1855—1859 is 321, and the greatest variation in any one year is reduced from over 15 per cent. to less than 7 per cent.

Column II. exhibits the amount reported as insured on the property damaged or destroyed by the fires. Taking the years from June, 1854, to May, 1860, as a basis, the amount *paid* is to the amount *insured* on the property as 27.96 : 100.

There are many interesting deductions which might be made from this table, though until much more detailed records are preserved, it will be impossible to reduce fire insurance to a mathematical basis similar to that which is now the groundwork of life insurance. The Fire Marshal is doing much, but his labors are not so valuable as they would be were the companies to publish a detailed report of the risks and losses of their respective business.

A rough estimate may be made of the amount of property insured in this city by assuming the amount of premiums on risks "up town" and "down town" as the total premium received for insurance in New-York. This was stated in Mr. Birney's "Assessment Report for account of Fire Patrol," as follows:

1859,.....	$2,196,367
1860,.....	2,142,500

If we assume the average rate per cent. of all the companies and for all hazards to be 40 cents, then the total amount of property insured in this will be—

In 1859,.....	$549,091,750
In 1860,.....	535,625,000

The assumption here is necessarily wide of the truth, because the two districts do not embrace all the property insured in the city, and the supposed rate per cent. is quite as likely to be in error as is the valuation of the property. On the basis of these figures the amount paid for loss is to the total amount insured in the city as 2003836 : 100.

It need not be explained that the more numerous the risks the less is the hazard. If all the property in the world were insured in one office, and if fire insurance were founded on even as correct statistics as life insurance, there would be but little chance of pecuniary loss, as the aggregate premiums would be equal to the aggregate loss. The only reason for the rejection of what are denominated special hazards is the difficulty of obtaining a sufficient number; and an office which taking but a few might be unfortunate, would be perfectly safe in assuming a large number. The smallness of loss compared with the amount at risk, as shown by the preceding tables, does not lead men of comparatively small capital to the conclusion that they might safely insure themselves because they feel that what might be a small loss to a company would be a serious one to them.

Suppose A. and B. engage in a game of chance, and commence each with a capital of $100,000. If they bet equal but small amounts, the game is as even as such a game can be. But if we suppose that A. has a capital of $100,000, when B. has but $1,000, it will be obvious on a moment's thought that it is impossible for them to play an even game. Let the stakes be for $500 each. If A. wins, he increases his capital but by one-half of one per cent., but B.'s loss is fifty per cent. of all he has.

In another view it will be seen to be impossible for any game of chance to be even. If two persons, starting each with equal amounts, bet all they have, the winner doubles his capital, but the loser loses *everything*, and there is no manner of proportion between *all* and *nothing*. That only should be put at risk the loss of which would not be ruinous, or better still, not inconvenient. This last is what the payers of the two millions per annum to the insurance companies of this city do. They stake a small premium against the security of their property. If no fire occurs, they lose the premium; if a fire do occur, they win the amount for which they are insured.

The reason why the companies can afford to give such odds is, that they are—if I may use the term—betting with a sufficiently large number to get an average. It is an obvious conclusion from this that the larger the business of a company is, and the more extended the field in which it operates, the greater will be the security which it offers. A large conflagration in this city might be ruinous to a company which had confined its business, or a large portion of its business, to the district in which the fire occurred; while another company, which had taken a larger field, might lose an equal amount with no damaging effect to its security and prosperity.

The amount of insurable property in the world not being unlimited, it follows in theory that the fewer companies there are, the lower might be the premiums. And on the contrary, that the more companies there are, the higher the premium would have to be; because, whatever the description of goods, it would be specially hazardous for any company to take but *one* risk. Almost no premium would be equitable in that case, but the same property might be insured for a trifle if the company, instead of having but *one*, had a large number.

In this city, however, the rule seems to be inverted; the more companies we have the more the rates are reduced. It is understood on all hands that the present rates are much too low, and it is probable that they will not be raised to a paying standard till our dividends, instead of being reduced, are annihilated. J. V. Y.

LONDON FIRE INSURANCE.

The prospectus has been issued of the new insurance company, formed under the auspices of the committee of merchants, brokers and others, appointed at the great meeting at the Mansion-house, London, on the subject of fire risks, on the 25th July. It is to be called the Commercial Union Fire Insurance Company, and the capital is fixed at £2,500,000, in shares of £50 each. The directors are all persons occupying excellent positions in the trade of the port of London, and as the movement in favor of the undertaking was commenced prior to that of the "Mercantile," already started, it would not be fair to complain of its introduction as a mere initiative effort to share the success of that scheme. Looking at the rapid increase of the property of the country requiring to be protected, there is probably an ample field for both; but it may be hoped that no further fresh ones will now be attempted or encouraged, at all events until it shall have been demonstrated that even the increased facilities now provided are inadequate for legitimate wants. The directors of the present company propose to take power to extend their operations to life and marine business, should it hereafter be thought desirable to do so.—*London Times, August*, 1861.

FIRE-PROOF WAREHOUSES.

In a recent debate at Liverpool, Mr. Gladstone referred to disastrous fires which had recently occurred, and he suggested that it was worthy of consideration whether or not they had the best possible construction of warehouses. He also called attention to a suggestion, that in constructing new warehouses the buildings should be detached, even if the space between did not exceed a brick's length. It would also be well to consider the manner in which goods were stored in warehouses, especially with reference to the storage of inflammable articles with goods which were not so. Another underwriter was of opinion that there was great risk of fire from the dangerous trades, sail-makers, ship-chandlers and others, which were allowed to be carried on in warehouses. Saltpetre had been stored there, but it was in the vaults underneath the warehouses, and accessible from the street, and it was stored there with the approval of the associated insurance offices in London. In respect to the dock warehouses, it was said the iron columns were all filled up with concrete, so that, in the event of a fire, if the iron were to run like molten lead, the building would remain precisely as firm as before. There was no wood used in the building, either, except in the tea warehouse, and, as the whole building was arched, there was very little risk of combustible materials passing through from one floor to another, and so causing fire. The committee had lately been considering the question of having a steam fire-engine as used in London and New-York, and from the evidence which they had collected it was believed it would be useful in Liverpool.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

I. Decisions of the Treasury:—Canary Seed.—Window Glass.—India Rubber in strips. Human Hair.—Tyrian Dye.—Caustic Soda.—Tanned Calf-Skins.—Yarns of the Tow of Flax.—Tare on Segars.—Swedish Iron. II. Oath of Allegiance. III. Repudiation in Tennessee. IV. Cotton in New-Orleans.

CANARY SEED.

Treasury Department, July 6, 1861.

Sir,—I have had under consideration the report of your predecessor in office, on the appeal of Messrs. Isaac Jeanes & Co. from his decision assessing duties at the rate of 10 per cent., under section 24 of the tariff act of March 2, 1861, on "Canary seed" as a non-enumerated article—the appellants claiming entry thereof free of duty under the provision, in section 23 of said tariff, for "garden seeds, and all other seeds for agricultural, horticultural, medicinal or manufacturing purposes, not otherwise provided for."

Canary seeds are not specially provided for by name in any provision of the tariff act of 1861, nor are they used, it is understood, for "agricultural, horticultural, medicinal or manufacturing purposes," but as food for birds.

The classification of seeds in the tariff of 1861 is the same as in the tariff of 1857, and it was decided by one of my predecessors that, under that act, they were to be regarded as "unenumerated," and, as such, liable to the duty therein provided for non-enumerated articles.

I perceive no just reason for changing that decision; and the assessment of duty at the rate of 10 per cent. is affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. Chase, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

Wm. B. Thomas, Esq., *Collector, &c., Philadelphia, Penn.*

POLISHED WINDOW GLASS.

Treasury Department, July 6, 1861.

Sir,—I have had under consideration your report on the appeal of Messrs. Semon, Bache & Co. from your assessment of duty at the rate of 2½ cents per square foot, under section 17 of the tariff act of March 2, 1861, on "Polished window glass, exceeding 10 × 15 and not exceeding 16 × 24 inches"—the appellants claiming the right to enter the article in question at the rate of 1½ cent per square foot under the provision in the same section for "rough plate, cylinder or broad window glass," of the same dimensions.

The decision of this question depends upon the fact whether the glass in question is "rough" or "polished." Presuming the article to be "polished window glass," as represented by the official experts who examined it, and not "rough," as claimed by the parties, I am of the

opinion that the duty in this case was properly assessed; and your decision is therefore affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, &c., New-York.*

INDIA RUBBER IN STRIPS, UNMANUFACTURED.

Treasury Department, July 8, 1861.

Sir,—I am in receipt of your reports on the appeal of WM. H. HUSSEY, Esq., from your decision subjecting to duty, at the rate of 10 per cent., under section 24 of the tariff act of March 2, 1861, "India rubber in strips, unmanufactured," as a non-enumerated article, the appellant claiming entry thereof free of duty under the provision in section 23 of said tariff for "India rubber, in bottles, slabs or sheets, unmanufactured."

In accordance with the evident intention of Congress to admit "India rubber, unmanufactured," free of duty, I am of the opinion that India rubber, in strips, unmanufactured, may properly be regarded as coming within the scope of the provisions in the 23d section of the tariff of 1861, of "India rubber, in bottles, slabs or sheets, unmanufactured," and that it is entitled to entry free of duty.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, &c., New-York.*

HUMAN HAIR.

Treasury Department, July 8, 1861.

Sir,—I have had under consideration your report on the appeal of A. LAFORE, Esq., of Philadelphia, from your assessment of duty at the rate of 30 per cent., under section 22 of the tariff act of 1861, on "Human hair" imported by him. The appellant claims entry of the article in question at the rate of 10 per cent., under the provision made for "Hair of all kinds, cleaned, but unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for," in section 19 of said tariff.

The decision of this question depends upon the fact whether the hair in this case is cleansed or prepared for use. From an inspection of the sample, and the opinion of official experts by whom the article has been examined, I am satisfied that it should be subjected to a duty of 30 per cent. under the provision, in section 22 of the tariff of 1861, of "Human hair cleansed or prepared for use."

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, &c., New-York.*

TYRIAN DYE.

Treasury Department, July 8, 1861.

Sir,—I have had under consideration your report on the appeal of JOHN SCHUMACHER, Esq., from your decision subjecting to duty, at the

rate of 20 per cent., under section 24 of the tariff act of March, 2, 1861, "Tyrian dye," as a "non-enumerated article, manufactured in whole or in part." The appellant claims entry of the article in question under the 20th section of the act of 1842, as bearing similarity in nature and the use it is put to, to "Articles in a *crude* state, used in dyeing or tanning, not otherwise provided for," made free by the tariff act of 1861.

It seems to be conceded, in this case, that the article in question is a manufacture, and that it is not enumerated in the tariff act of 1861. It will, therefore, fall within the provision made for manufactures not enumerated or provided for in the 24th section of the act of 1861, and be liable to duty at the rate of 20 per cent. *ad valorem.*

The application to this case of the 20th section of the tariff act of 1842, suggested by the importer, cannot be allowed. That section has exclusive reference to the classification of unenumerated articles subject to duty, but it cannot transfer a dutiable article to the free list.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

J. Z. GOODRICH, Esq., *Collector, &c., Boston, Mass.*

CAUSTIC SODA.

Treasury Department, July 8, 1861.

Sir,—I have had under consideration your report on the appeal of Messrs. WILSON & BROWN, from your assessment of duty at the rate of 20 per cent., under section 24 of the tariff act of March 2, 1861, on "Caustic soda," as a "manufactured article non-enumerated"—the appellant claiming entry of the article in question free of duty, by operation of the 20th section of the tariff act of 1842, as most resembling in material, quality and uses to which it is applied "soda ash," which is free under the tariff act of March 2, 1861.

Caustic soda is not enumerated in the tariff of 1861, and, being a manufacture, it falls within the provision made for manufactures, unenumerated or unprovided for, in the 24th section of the act of 1861, and is chargeable with a duty of 20 per centum *ad valorem.* The 20th section of the act of 1842 has no application to this case. That provision only refers to the classification of unenumerated articles subject to duty, but it cannot transfer a dutiable article to the free list.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, &c., New-York.*

TANNED CALF-SKINS.

Treasury Department, July 10, 1861.

Sir,—The appeal of S. MENDELSON, Esq., from your assessment of duty at the rate of 25 per cent., under the provision made for leather, in section 20 of the tariff of March 2, 1861, on "Tanned calf-skins," has been duly considered. The appellant claims entry of said article under the same provision, viz.: "Leather, *upper*, of all kinds, except tanned calf-skin, which shall pay 25 per cent. *ad valorem*," as "upper leather," and, as such, liable to duty at the rate of 20 per cent. The article in

question appears, from the report of the appraisers at your port, to be "tanned calf-skins." Assuming the correctness of that description, I am of the opinion that the duty was properly levied by you at the rate of 25 per cent. The provision in the 20th section of the act of 1861, on which the importer relies, imposes, it will be seen, in terms, the duty assessed by you.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, &c., New-York.*

YARNS OF THE TOW OF FLAX.

Treasury Department, July 10, 1861.

Sir,—I have had under consideration your report on the appeal of Messrs. HADDEN & Co., from your decision subjecting to duty, at the rate of 30 per cent., under the tariff act of March 2, 1861, "Yarns of tow of flax," as a manufacture of flax not otherwise provided for. The appellants claim entry of the article in question at the rate of 20 per cent., under section 24 of said tariff, as "an unenumerated article."

That the duty was properly assessed by you, at the rate of 30 per cent., I have no doubt. If they are to be regarded as "manufactures of flax," they would come within the provision in section 14 of the act of 1861, for "all other manufactures of flax, or which flax shall be the component material of chief value, and not otherwise provided for." If, however, as claimed by the importer, they are to be regarded as unenumerated because no provision is made, in terms, for the "manufactures of the tow of flax," they would still be liable to duty at the rate of 30 per cent., by operation of the provisions of the 20th section of the tariff act of 1842—"manufactures of flax" being the articles they most resemble in one or more of the particulars enumerated in that section.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, &c., New-York.*

TARE ON SEGARS.

Treasury Department, July 9, 1861.

Sir,—Your report on the application of Messrs. J. M. & D. WILLIAMS, to be allowed actual tare on certain segars in boxes, imported and entered by them at your port, is received.

The tare on segars in boxes is distinctly specified in the 58th section of the general collection act of the 2d March, 1799, and the rate therein prescribed appears to have been allowed in this case, viz.: 18 per cent. If the actual tare, as is alleged, differs materially from the rates prescribed in that section, the remedy is to be found in the provision which authorizes the officers of the customs, if they see fit, with the consent of the importer or consignee, to estimate the tares according to the rates specified in the invoice.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

J. Z. GOODRICH, Esq., *Collector, &c., Boston, Mass.*

SWEDISH IRON—TRANSHIPPED.

Treasury Department, August 19, 1861.

Sir,—Messrs. NAYLOR & Co., of your port, have made inquiry as to whether Swedish iron, shipped by way of London, Hamburg or Bremen, and from thence re-shipped to the United States by either Bremen, Hamburg or American vessels, will be subject to the discriminating duty of ten per centum provided for by the 3d section of the act of August 5, 1861.

Swedish iron, so imported, will not, in my opinion, be liable to the discriminating duty in question.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector of Customs, New-York.*

VESSELS FROM SOUTHERN PORTS.

Ninety-five vessels entering this port from the ports of the seceded States, without the proper clearances, have, in the last few months, been fined $100 each, under the act of February 18, 1793, regulating the coasting trade. The fines have been paid, and the masters and owners have entered protest and applied for redress under the remitting act of March 3, 1797. In consideration of the fact that the ports from which these vessels sailed were in possession of persons in insurrection against the United States, an order has been issued by the Secretary of the Treasury instructing the Collector at this port to release the amount of fines paid in every case where it is proved that the masters and owners attempted to obtain proper clearances. Merchandise forfeited by the same parties is to be returned on payment of duties. The fines of seventy-five vessels have been refunded since June 1. Henceforth, where the violation of the revenue laws arises from the obstruction of their due execution in southern ports, the Collector at this port is instructed by the Secretary of the Treasury, before taking any serious action in the matter, to allow the parties interested to lodge a statement with him setting forth all the facts and circumstances relating to the case, which statement will be transmitted to the Treasury Department, together with the Collector's report and views of the particular case for consideration. While awaiting the decision of the department, *no fine or penalty will be imposed, nor any deposit in lieu thereof will be received.* The collector will not place any restriction upon the vessel or merchandise, but will permit the entry to be made in the regular way.

AN ACT

REQUIRING AN OATH OF ALLEGIANCE, AND TO SUPPORT THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES, TO BE ADMINISTERED TO CERTAIN PERSONS IN THE CIVIL SERVICE OF THE UNITED STATES.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That it shall be the duty of the heads of the several departments to cause to be administered to each and every officer, clerk or employee, now in their respective departments, or in any way connected therewith, the following oath, viz.: "I do

solemnly swear (or affirm, as the case may be) that I will support, protect and defend the Constitution and government of the United States against all enemies, whether domestic or foreign, and that I will bear true faith, allegiance and loyalty to the same, any ordinance, resolution or law of any State convention or legislature to the contrary notwithstanding; and, further, that I do this with a full determination, pledge and purpose, without any mental reservation or evasion whatsoever; and, further, that I will well and faithfully perform all the duties which may be required of me by law. So help me God!" And that each and every such civil officer and employee in the departments aforesaid, or in any way connected therewith, in the service or employment of the United States, who shall refuse to take the oath or affirmation herein provided, shall be immediately dismissed and discharged from such service or employment.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the oath or affirmation herein provided for in the first section of this act may be taken before any justice of the peace or notary public, or other person who is legally authorized to administer an oath in the State or District where the same may be administered. And that any violation of such oath by any person or persons taking the same shall subject the offender to all the pains and penalties of wilful and corrupt perjury, who shall be liable to be indicted and prosecuted to conviction for any such offence, before any court having competent jurisdiction thereof. *And provided further*, That such offender shall be forthwith discharged from such service or employment.

Approved August 6, 1861.

REPUDIATION IN TENNESSEE.

The State of Tennessee having passed a law discriminating between creditors outside and inside of the Confederate States, the State Comptroller has issued the following notice:

COMPTROLLER'S OFFICE, *Nashville, Tenn., July* 3, 1861.

By virtue of an act of the legislature, passed the 1st inst., I hereby give notice that the interest upon all State bonds, or bonds upon which the State may be liable, will be paid at this place; provided, that said bonds are not owned now, or were not owned on or subsequently to the 15th of April, 1861, by citizens or corporations of the non-slaveholding States of the United States of America. Satisfactory proof of ownership, on and after the 15th of April, will be required by the affidavit of the holder, and other proof where the party is not personally well known, taken before a notary public, or other persons authorized to administer an oath in the county where taken. Citizens and corporations of friendly foreign powers will be paid in sterling or other exchange.

J. T. DUNLAP, *Comptroller.*

COTTON IN NEW-ORLEANS.

We have before us a New-Orleans circular, covering the recommendation of the cotton factors of that port to withhold cotton from market. It is as follows:

The undersigned, cotton factors in the city of New-Orleans, in view of the interests of all parties, recommend to their various customers and correspondents not to ship any portion of their crops of cotton to this city, or to remove it from their plantations, until the blockade is fully and entirely abandoned, of which due notice will be given. [Signed by 135 names and firm names.]

OFFICE OF BOARD OF UNDERWRITERS, *New-Orleans, July* 23, 1861.

At a meeting of the board, held to-day, the following resolution was adopted and ordered to be published:

Resolved, That no river insurance on cotton bound to this port, nor fire insurance on cotton in the city of New-Orleans, be taken until the blockade of the port is raised and its free navigation resumed. Cotton on plantations may be insured to the extent of three-fourths its value, provided it is stored in lots of not exceeding one hundred and fifty bales, and the lots at least three hundred feet apart.

JAMES H. WHEELER, *Secretary.*

The circular, which is signed W. Cox & Co., thus urges the necessity of the course required by the above documents:

"It is clear that, so long as the port continues blockaded, *no cotton can be sold*, and it would be bad policy to permit an accumulation in our warehouses. The enemy would be invited to attack a city whose successful investment would place in his hands a sufficiency of cotton * * * *to relieve him from the complications of the blockade.*

"Our cotton warehouses are crowded together in certain portions of the city, and *a single spark might kindle a conflagration unprecedented in the history of this country*, bringing ruin upon planter and factor, and disaster upon the Confederacy."

THE COOLIE SLAVE TRADE.

We are informed, that by a new law now enforced in Cuba, all coolie laborers, at the expiration of the seven years' apprenticeship for which they were imported, are required to choose between an immediate return to their native country or become "apprentices for life." It is likely to happen that in many cases these unfortunate creatures are unable to pay their passage-money, or that they fail to get seasonable information in regard to the termination of their stipulated term of service; in either case they are consigned to perpetual servitude. The effect of this is simply to transfer the slave trade from the coast of Africa to China and India, for few adventurers are likely to run the hazard of capture with a cargo of Africans on board, when they can obtain coolies with impunity, and perhaps get about as well paid for their trouble. It is, probably, a fact, that at present a smaller number of slavers are afloat than at any time for many years past, (chiefly owing to the depreciation in sugars and consequent falling off in the demand for labor,) while the coolie traffic is engaging increased attention. Negroes are more valuable than any other class as field hands, and consequently bring a larger price; but coolies do quite as well for general service.—*Journal of Commerce.*

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE AND BOARDS OF TRADE.

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF NEW-YORK.

The regular monthly meeting of the Chamber was held Thursday, September 5th, Pelatiah Perit, Esq., President, in the chair. About twenty members present.

The following were elected members: Messrs. Benjamin G. Arnold, No. 125 Front-street; Frederick Sturges, No. 125 Front-street, and Joseph Willets, No. 113 Water-street.

On motion of Mr. George Opdyke, Dr. Francis Lieber, LL. D., Professor of History and Political Science in Columbia College, was elected an honorary member.

Mr. George W. Blunt moved that a special meeting of the Chamber be held on Monday, September 9th, at one o'clock, to elect three members of the Board of Pilot Commissioners for two years, as provided by the Revised Statutes, Vol. II., p. 429, viz.:

"There shall be, in the city of New-York, a board, entitled 'The Board of Commissioners of Pilots,' consisting of five persons, to be elected as soon as convenient after the passage of this act, and to hold their offices respectively for two years from the time of their election, and until others shall be elected.

"Three of such commissioners shall be elected by the members of the Chamber of Commerce of the city of New-York, at a meeting to be called for the purpose, to be specified in the notice for the meeting; and the certificate of the secretary of that body, or other officer regularly performing his duties for the time being, shall be *prima facie* evidence of such election."

Mr. George Opdyke said that, with the concurrence of the President and several members of the Chamber, he had prepared a few resolutions upon the subject of the war and condition of the country, which he would read:

Whereas, The progress of the war for the defence of the Union and Constitution has given evidence of a degree of strength and energy on the part of those who are madly striving to destroy them, which can be only subdued by the marshalling of an overwhelming force; and whereas, it is evident that to this end all the resources, both in men and means, in the loyal States will be needed if we would avoid a protracted struggle and secure the blessings of an early, honorable and enduring peace; and whereas, humanity and interest alike demand the speedy attainment of this end, therefore,

Resolved, That this Chamber, in view of the unexpected magnitude of the contest, deems it a duty to renew its pledge to the government of earnest sympathy and support.

Resolved, That the members of the Chamber, having entire confidence in the integrity and ability of the head of the Treasury Department, will exert their best efforts, individually and collectively, and in their connections with moneyed institutions, to strengthen the financial resources and credit of government.

Resolved, That this Chamber pledges to the government its unfaltering support in a vigorous prosecution of the war until every rebel has laid down his arms and every State returned to its allegiance. The contest, it believes, admits of no other termination, since any other basis of peace would dishonor the nation and prove to the world that our cherished form of popular government is a failure.

Resolved, That all the aid afforded to the enemy, either by supplying means of

prosecuting the war or by openly advocating their cause, is treasonable, and should be promptly punished with the utmost rigor of the law and by the stern rebuke of public opinion.

Resolved, That the decisive course recently adopted by the government and its commanding officers affords gratifying proof that the future of this contest is not to be controlled by the quixotic idea of prosecuting war in the spirit of peace, but that the guilty conspirators will be made to feel, both in their persons and their property, all the rigors that the usages of civilized warfare will justify.

Mr. OPDYKE said he had but a few words to say in support of the resolutions. It seemed to him that, in view of the exhibition of power on the part of the rebels, beyong any thing we had any reason to apprehend, calling for united and vigorous efforts on the part of the North to oppose them, the Chamber ought again to renew its pledges of support to and confidence in the government. It was well known that until a very recent period this contest, on behalf of the United States government, had been conducted with a great deal of mildness and leniency; so much so as, in the opinion of many, to retard our progress, weaken our strength and prolong the struggle. Recently, however, we had evidence that that policy was changed; and it seemed to him proper that the Chamber should express its hearty concurrence in that change.

Gen. P. M. WETMORE said the whole subject had been so recently exhausted in the eloquent argument presented by the Hon. Mr. HOLT, of Kentucky, that any advocacy of the resolutions just presented would be unnecessary. But he took the opportunity to remind the Chamber that on that floor, on the 19th of April, was first put forth to the country the tone which loyal men were expected to take upon this question. The key-note was struck here which, in a few days, was followed by the grand Union demonstration in Union Square. From this Chamber rang forth the trumpet-peal of patriotism which was heard to-day, and which would be heard to all time; and he rejoiced, as one of the merchants of New-York about to go off the stage, that the merchants, in their collective capacity, representing in this Chamber all the interests and duties and principles of commerce, had set forth the doctrine that loyalty was to prevail in this contest, and that the war was to be fought out to the end, preserving the rights, and duties, and interests, and laws of the Union under which we had lived for three-quarters of a century. He would also remind them that on that same day a group of capitalists assembled in a corner of the Chamber and took measures to subscribe ten millions to government, as evidence of the sincerity with which they supported the resolutions passed. The records handed down from the time of the revolution presented no page more honorable to the character of New-York merchants than the proceedings of the 19th of April; and he felt more than ever proud that he belonged to this commercial community. Commerce had always been true and loyal in our country, as New-York had shown when sending forth four loyal men to declare the principles of liberty in the first Congress held after the prostration of the Colonial government; and God grant that commerce, and the men who administered its duties and enjoyed its privileges might always be true to the country as had been the merchants of New-York in this great emergency which had come upon us.

WILLIAM K. STRONG cordially concurred in seconding the resolutions, and desired to add a few words from his own observation and inspection during the last two weeks at the seat of government, where he had been taking great interest in the movement of that gigantic machine, which

was now conducting the war that had been imposed upon us by rebellion unexampled in the history of the world. It afforded him pleasure, going there, as he had, with his ears filled by rumors prejudicial to the unity, to the power, stability and success of the government in this mighty war, that he was enabled, after an observation of ten or twelve days, to bear his attestation to the labors of the President and every member of his cabinet. Mr. S. spoke of the unwearied activity displayed by the Executive, the Secretaries, General SCOTT and General MCCLELLAN. He had returned from Europe, where he had intended to spend two years in travelling through the countries of the Old World and examining their institutions. Comparing them with our own benignant government, he was more than ever thankful that he was an American citizen. He would not disparage the intelligence and power of England, but she had not our freedom; he would not underrate the civilization of France, but citadels and police surveillance at every step was not what one accustomed to the freedom of this land could tolerate. He had left his family behind and come to contribute all he had of life and fortune to the preservation of this government; and in that spirit he heartily endorsed the resolutions. Speaking of our position as a commercial nation, Mr. S. said, that the war now going on here suspended one-third of the business of the entire world. Go to any of the commercial or manufacturing towns in England and France, and inquire "How is business?" "Very bad." "What is the difficulty?" "Oh! the war in America." "How much is your business reduced?" "Nearly one-half." The question was agitated as to how England and France would treat us. He would answer from his own observation, that England and France would study to preserve a neutrality as perfect as could be maintained.

The resolutions passed unanimously.

The following resolutions, moved by the Hon. F. A. CONKLING, were adopted:

Resolved, That the interests of commerce, which is the vital essence of every system of public credit, as well as the protection of the national territory, demand the most active measures on the part of the government for the defence of the harbors on the Atlantic coast.

Resolved, That the defences of the harbor of New-York, in their present unfinished condition, are deemed by competent engineers insufficient to the protection of this port, and that we earnestly invoke the attention of the public authorities to the necessity of perfecting a system of fortifications adequate to the security of the vast interests involved.

Mr. BLUNT mentioned that when the committee was in Washington, Gen. TOTTEN stated that Congress had provided means; that he had plenty of guns and carriages, and only waited for the forts to be finished.

Mr. CONKLING stated that by the act for additional appropriations, passed July, 1861, there was given

For Fort Richmond, Staten Island,	$ 10,000
For the fort on the site of Fort Tompkins,	50,000
For fort at Willett's Point,	100,000
For fort at Sandy Hook,	100,000

Gen. TOTTEN had stated the appropriations were sufficient.

On motion, Commodore SILAS H. STRINGHAM, United States Navy, was elected an honorary member of the Chamber.

On motion of Mr. DENNING DUER, it was

Resolved, That the thanks of this Chamber be tendered to the Hon. JOSEPH HOLT, of Kentucky, for his eloquent, powerful and patriotic address, delivered at Irving Hall, on Tuesday evening last.

Resolved, That he be requested to furnish the Chamber a copy, for publication and distribution, and that the Executive Committee be authorized to carry this resolution into effect.

On motion of Captain C. H. MARSHALL, the following resolution was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, As the sense of this Chamber, that the acknowledgments of every loyal citizen are due to the authorities who designed, and to the naval and military officers who executed, the recent operations on the southern coast of the United States; and that Commodore SILAS H. STRINGHAM, of the navy, and Major-General BUTLER, of the army, and the officers and men who served under them, have entitled themselves to the highest distinction for their skill and gallant bearing in accomplishing so important a result with so little sacrifice of human life.

The following gentlemen were nominated this day for membership at the next monthly meeting:

		Nominated by
JOHN JACOB ASTOR, JR.,	85 Prince-street,	PROSPER M. WETMORE.
JONATHAN H. RANSOM,	39 Dey-street,	PROSPER M. WETMORE.
EDWARD MOTT ROBINSON,	88 Wall-street,	WILLIAM T. COLEMAN.
SELAH VAN DUZER,	N. Y. Exchange B'k,	PROSPER M. WETMORE.
EDWARD WILLETS,	363 Pearl-street,	FRANCIS S. LATHROP.

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, CINCINNATI.

Annual Meeting of the Chamber of Commerce of Cincinnati, Tuesday, September 10.

The annual meeting of the Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce was held in the Merchants' Exchange Tuesday, September 10. The meeting was presided over by JOHN DUBOIS, Esq., Vice-President. The Superintendent's annual statement of the trade and commerce of the city was ordered to be printed for the use of the members. The financial report was presented, of which the following is a synopsis. The association is shown to be in a flourishing condition:

Balance in treasury, September 1, 1860,.....	$4,287 78
Receipts during year,.....	7,840 81
Total,.....	$12,128 59
Expenditures,.....	7,421 36
Balance in treasury, September 1, 1861,.....	$4,707 23

Sundry sums due to the Chamber increase the net assets of the Chamber, over all liabilities, to $5,974 98. The hall of the Merchants' Exchange has been renovated and repaired, at an expense of $590. Sixty-two new members were elected during the year. The membership now consists of 299 individuals and 234 forms. The officers elected for the ensuing year are as follows: President, JOSEPH C. BUTLER; Vice-Presidents, ISAAC A. OGBORNE, N. GOLDSMITH, J. D. MINOR, LEWIS FAGIN, S. W. SMITH and B. P. BAKER; Treasurer, GEORGE KECK; Secretary, JOHN A. GENO.

Mr. BUTLER, the successful candidate for President, being called upon, made a brief speech. He said he felt he owed his election more to a personal preference than to his qualification for the office, and that he felt himself honored in being elevated to a place which had been filled by so many older and much more distinguished merchants. In consequence of the peculiar existing circumstances, he might be permitted to say a word or two regarding the distracted state of our country. Whether this war be soon ended or be a long and tedious one, he felt well assured that the merchants of Cincinnati will always be found on the side of their country and constitutional law, and in opposition to rebellion and anarchy.

RAIL-ROAD, CANAL AND TELEGRAPH STATISTICS.

I. The Galena and Chicago Rail-Road Company. II. Watertown and Rome Rail-Road. III. French Railways. IV. The Great Northern Railway of France. V. English Railway Dividends. VI. British and Irish Magnetic Telegraph. VII. The Atlantic Cable. VIII. Telegraph to Siberia. IX. Rail-Road Telegraph Lines.

GALENA AND CHICAGO RAIL-ROAD COMPANY.

Abstract of Balance-sheet, 1857—1861.

	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Road, &c.,	$ 8,879,804	$ 9,335,727	$ 9,339,390	$ 9,354,514	$ 9,352,481
Machinery,	168,731	59,734	50,302	48,858	43,413
Real estate,	23,138	23,138	22,706	21,432	20,334
Materials,	7,079	476,683	281,483	213,097	228,462
Bonds, &c.,	211,003	318,098	303,132	313,243	308,826
Miscellaneous,	459,319	70,367	110,192	145,557	150,867
Cash,	47,498	82,975	193,311	249,780	363,503
Total,	$ 9,896,572	$10,366,716	$10,300,516	$10,346,441	$10,469,886
Capital,	$ 6,013,100	$ 6,023,800	$ 6,026,400	$ 6,027,700	$ 6,028,300
3d dividend bonds,	600,000	600,000	600,000	600,600	600,000
1st mortgage bonds,	1,400,000	1,400,000	1,511,000	1,393,000	1,393,000
2d mortgage bonds,	906,000	1,847,000	1,738,000	1,629,000	1,520,000
Litchfield bonds,	52,015	52,015	52,015	11,200	11,200
Bills payable,	611,567	49,716	....	3,837	9,766
Scrip, &c.,	16,004	8,339	5,996	4,702	4,197
Dividend & coupon,	45,212	8,088	12,521	11,726	11,643
Sinking fund,	98,000	152,000	269,000	378,000	487,900
Surplus, &c.,	153,720	82,975	198,636	250,687	335,212
Sundries,	953	141,783	4,949	36,589	77,269
Total,	$ 9,896,571	$10,366,716	$10,300,516	$10,346,414	$10,469,886

Statement of Cost, Earnings and Dividends from the opening of the Road.

Years.	*Cost of Road.*	*Mileage.*	*Gross Earnings.*	*Net Earnings.*	*Amount of Dividends.*	*Per cent.*
1849,	$ 433,429	40.50	$ 48,520	$ 29,812	$ 23,383	10½
1850,	695,507	42.50	127,686	78,782	47,711	15
1851,	1,326,706	84.50	211,310	123,948	62,914	15
1852,	2,230,189	92.50	473,538	286,162	149,973	20
1853,	4,143,656	187.50	799,013	439,814	353,155	16
1854,	6,552,163	211.50	1,506,710	820,193	546,519	17
1855,	8,429,043	249.50	2,315,787	1,252,042	986,524	22
1856,	8,979,804	249.50	2,416,344	1,120,851	1,095,590	20
1857,	9,435,721	259.50	1,640,807	719,555	301,115	5
1858,	9,339,390	259.50	1,547,561	620,328	241,024	4
1859,	9,354,514	259.50	1,369,441	546,420	120,528	2
1860,	9,352,481	261.25	1,462,752	652,261	180,834	3

WATERTOWN AND ROME RAIL-ROAD.

The Watertown and Rome Rail-Road Company (now under the new title of the Rome, Watertown and Ogdensburg Rail-Road Company) has

contracted with GEORGE B. PHELPS, of Watertown, to build the branch from the Forest House to Ogdensburg. This branch, so called, is nineteen miles long, and will form, in connection with the present line, railway communication from Rome to Ogdensburg, connecting at the former place with the New-York Central, and at the latter, by a ferry across the St. Lawrence, with the Grand Trunk and the Prescott and Altona Rail-Road. It is said that this will shorten the distance by rail, between Ogdensburg and Albany and New-York, thirty-seven miles.

FRENCH RAIL-ROADS.

The network of rail-roads in France measures at the present time 8,100 kilometres, (the kilometre being about 1,093 yards, the aggregate length may be set down at 5,030 miles,) over which travel 6,000 cars; are able to convey at the same time 150,000 travellers; and 42,000 baggage cars are capable of containing 336,000 tons of merchandise, or the cargo of seventy ships of the line. The motive power applied to these roads comprises 2,700 locomotives, of 800,000 horse-power, weighing, with their tenders, 122,000 tons, and cost 189,000,000 francs, about $37,000,000. Their total annual travel is about 43,000,000 kilometres, of 1,093 yards each. The consumption of fuel, corresponding to that travel, equals about 336,000 cubic metres, and that of the water reduced to steam, 3,500,000,000 of litres. (The litre equal to 11½ gallons.)

The Great Northern Railway of France is 967 kilometres (about 600 miles) in length; owns 456 locomotives and 10,783 cars of all kinds. In 1860 it carried 7,745,000 passengers and 3,890,000 tons of freight. Its receipts were, the same year, 60,607,000 francs, (about $12,000,000.) The following table, showing its receipts from 1851 to 1860 inclusive, shows the wonderfully productive capacity of the railway for developing business:

YEAR.	*Passengers.*	*Tons merchandise.*	*Receipts.*
1851,.....	3,098,000	584,000	$ 5,020,000
1852,.....	4,259,000	799,000	5,720,000
1853,.....	4,741,000	1,177,000	6,640,000
1854,.....	5,071,000	1,622,000	7,700,000
1855,.....	5,550,000	2,050,000	9,580,000
1856,.....	5,554,000	2,152,000	9,460,000
1857,.....	6,166,000	2,578,000	10,060,000
1858,.....	6,648,000	3,158,000	10,840,000
1859,.....	7,356,000	3,486,000	11,340,000
1860,.....	7,775,000	3,890,000	12,120,000

In stating the receipts in dollars we have calculated five francs to the dollar—near enough for a rough statement. Up to 1854 this road was only 710 kilometres in length. Of the sixty millions francs received in 1860, about twenty-seven millions was received from what is denominated *fast trains*, viz., passenger, baggage, etc.; the balance from *slow trains*, or merchandise. The earnings per kilometre in 1860 were 62,675 francs, against 59,930 in 1859. Of the 3,890,000 tons of merchandise carried in 1860, full one-half was coal—coal carrying being the specialty of this road. The dividends paid in 1860 amounted to 13 per cent. Only one railway in France paid larger dividends; the Orleans having paid twenty per cent. The market value of the different French railways is about as

follows, calculating the par at 100: Great Northern, 196; Orleans, 282; Paris and Lyons, 200; Strasburg, 117; Southern, 122; Eastern, 117; Bordeaux, 121. The other French securities also stand very high in the market: Bank of France, 290; Credit Foncier, about 250; Credit Mobilier, 146; Credit Industriel, 112.

ENGLISH RAILWAY DIVIDENDS.

The following table of the dividends declared in 1855, 1856, 1857, 1858, 1859 and 1860, together with the balances remaining over from the last half-year, (after payment of dividend,) we copy from the London *Money Market Review* for August, 1861:

RATE PER CENT. PER ANNUM OF DIVIDEND DECLARED.

COMPANY.	1855.		1856.		1857.		1858.		1859.		1860.		*Balances from last half year.*
	1st ½ yr.	2d ½ yr.	1st ½ yr.	2d ½ yr.	1st ½ yr.	2d ½ yr.	1st ½ yr.	2d ½ yr.	1st ½ yr.	2d ½ yr.	1st ½ yr.	2d ½ yr.	
Bristol and Exeter,.....	4½	4½	4½	5	5	5	5	5	5½	6	6	5½	£2,991
Caledonian,.....	3	2	1	3½	3½	5	3½	4	3½	5	4½	5½	10,596
Eastern Counties,.....	2½	2½	1	2½	2½	3½	2½	3½	2½	3½	2½	2½	5,699
Edinburgh and Glasgow,....	2	2	2	2½	3	3½	3	3½	3½	4	4	4½	2,259
Glasgow and South Western,	3½	4	4	5	5	4½	4½	4½	5	5	5½	5½	5,174
Great Northern,.....	2½	6	3½	nil.	3-5	5 21-40	3½	6½	3½	7	4½	6½	966
Great Southern and Western,	5	5	6	6	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5,900
Great Western,.....	2	2½	2½	3	1	2	nil.	2½	2	3½	3	3½	13,001
Lancaster and Carlisle,.....	7	7½	7½	8	8	9	9	9	9	9½	9½	9½	....
Lancashire and Yorkshire,...	4	4½	4½	5	5	4½	3½	4	4½	5	5½	6	22,006
London and North Western,.	4½	5½	5	6	5	5	3½	4½	4½	5½	5	5½	27,561
London and Brighton,.....	4 1-5	5 4-5	5	7	5	7	5	7	5	7	5	7	5,076
London and South Western,.	4½	5½	5½	6½	4½	5½	4½	5½	4½	5½	4½	5½	1,792
Manchester, Sheff. and Linc.,	nil.	½	½	1	1	1	nil.	nil.	2-5	1	1	1½	1,103
Midland,.....	3½	3½	4	4½	4½	5	4½	5½	5½	6	6½	7	3,726
North British,.....	nil.	nil.	2½	2½	2½	2½	2½	2½	3	3	3	3½	1,005
North East.—"Berwick,"....	3½	4½	4	4½	5	5	4½	4½	4½	5½	5½	5½	4,246
Do. "Leeds,".....	..	..	..	..	2	2½	1½	2½	1½	2½	2½	3	1,748
Do. "York,".....	2	3½	2½	3½	4	4	3	4	3½	4½	4½	5	2,686
North London,.....	4	4	4½	5	4½	4½	5	5	5	5½	5	5½	589
North Staffordshire,.....	nil.	4	3½	3½	4	4	2	2½	3	4	4	4	3,859
Scottish Central,.....	5	5	5	5½	3½	5½	5½	5½	5	5½	5½	5½	15,956
South Eastern,.....	2 17-20	4 8-4	3 3-4	5	3	4½	3	5	4	6	4½	6	2,055
South Wales,.....	3	3	3½	4	3½	3½	2½	2½	2½	2½	2	3	2,410

BRITISH AND IRISH MAGNETIC TELGRAPH.

The report of the directors stated that the gross income of the year 1860 amounted to nearly £90,000, against £74,000 in 1859, £73,000 in 1858, and £71,200 in 1857, the year when the two companies were amalgamated. This large increase was not derived from any one particular source, but partly from the extensions of 1859, and from a general growing use of the telegraph by the public. The net increase, compared with 1859, amounted to £6,600, and after paying the 7 per cent. preference dividend, the interest on the debentures, and a dividend at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum for the last half-year on the ordinary stock, there remained £2,000. The balance-sheet showed that £756,623 had been expended on capital account.

TELEGRAPHIC COMMUNICATION WITH SIBERIA.

The St. Petersburg *Gazette* publishes the following article:—"The plan for establishing a telegraphic line connecting Europe, through Siberia, with the Pacific Ocean has, during four years, had time to take shape and form, so that at the commencement of the present year the supreme sanction was given to the project for constructing a telegraphic line in the countries bordering on the Amoor and the Oussouri, from Nikolaiewsk by Khabarovka to the port of Novgorod, (1,900 versts,) the most important point of the possessions recently annexed to Russia on the sea of Japan. The establishment of this line is undertaken by the Ministry of Marine, at its cost and under its direction; and at the same time the superior direction of the means of communication (Board of Works) has commenced the construction of a line starting from Kasan in the direction of Siberia, which proposes opening, at the end of the present year, a telegraphic communication from Kasan to Omsk, (1,900 versts,) and to continue it afterwards to Irkutsk, a distance of 2,475 versts from Omsk. Thus, probably, within two or three years on the one side there will be a telegraphic communication between Europe and Asia to Irkutsk, and, on the other hand, our new colonies on the Amoor and Oussouri will be connected with each other and with our principal ports on the Japanese waters. Thus, of the extent of 10,000 versts which the Siberian telegraph will embrace, there only remains the central portion, that of Irkutsk by Kiakhta to Khabarovka, about 3,500 versts, where as yet nothing has been settled; but it is beyond a doubt that as soon as the works actually projected shall have been successfully completed, this intermediate line will be constructed; and thus within four or five years at the least the gigantic project of a telegraphic communication from Europe to the distant lands on the shores of the Pacific Ocean will be realized."

RAIL-ROAD TELEGRAPH LINES.

The use of the telegraph by rail-road companies has proved of vast advantage in many respects, of which the one most readily perceived by the public, is the decrease of liability to accidents by collision. There are several of the long lines of rail-road that have built telegraph lines exclusively for their own use. Besides the principal office, operators are stationed at short intermediate distances, say ten or twelve miles. Every operator reports direct to headquarters as each train passes his station, and the clicking needle at the main office is thus constantly employed. The manager at headquarters is thus repeatedly "posted" as to the progress of each train. He has almost, literally, the movements of the trains before his eyes. If a crevasse or a land slide occurs, or a bridge is burned or carried away, or any other accident occurs, he can immediately provide a remedy. This vigilance is indeed expensive, but it is true economy.

A captain, lately a rail-road conductor, was drilling a squad, and while marching them by flank, turned to speak to a friend for a moment. On looking again towards his squad, he saw they were in the act of "butting up" against a fence. In his hurry to halt them, he cried out—*Down brakes! down brakes!*

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

The month of September is marked by a favorable change in the business affairs at and near New-York. The heavy outlay of government funds, amounting to millions of dollars, has given an impetus to manufactures in New-England and New-York. The advices as to the English and the Continental grain harvests are such as to sustain the active shipments from this port. There are buyers of fall goods in our market from the West, giving some little activity to foreign and domestic dry goods. The imports at this port during the last month are about one-third as large as for the corresponding month in either of the last two years, showing a decline almost if not entirely without precedent at this season of the year. The receipts of specie and bullion have been smaller than for any previous month of the current year. The withdrawals from warehouse are somewhat large in proportion to the imports, showing, together with the imports, $11,500,000 for the month, and $156,295,000 for the eight months ending 1st inst. We annex our usual summary of comparative imports for four years:

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW-YORK IN AUGUST.

ENTERED.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
For consumption,..	$15,067,732 ..	$18,416,207 ..	$19,564,675 ..	$3,359,695
For warehousing,..	2,146,021 ..	2,964,044 ..	4,182,764 ..	2,660,457
Free goods,.....	2,342,741 ..	2,920,921 ..	2,050,665 ..	1,816,224
Specie and bullion,	67,682 ..	348,419 ..	140,750 ..	1,049,552
Total entered,....	$19,624,176 ..	$24,649,591 ..	$25,938,854 ..	$8,885,928
Withdrawn,.....	3,116,013 ..	3,296,084 ..	3,325,105 ..	2,614,652

The business for eight months has been as follows:

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW-YORK FOR EIGHT MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

ENTERED.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
For consumption,..	$65,401,911 ..	$131,927,230 ..	$118,270,269 ..	$38,551,615
For warehousing,..	17,331,440 ..	26,173,802 ..	29,560,141 ..	33,102,138
Free goods,.....	15,298,266 ..	21,350,052 ..	19,816,231 ..	22,074,189
Specie and bullion,	1,882,940 ..	1,649,501 ..	891,938 ..	33,955,718
Total entered,....	$99,914,557 ..	$181,100,585 ..	$168,538,579 ..	$127,683,655
Withdrawn,.....	28,102,515 ..	17,406,868 ..	21,254,755 ..	28,611,202

The chief feature of the month, after the successful taking of the new loan by capitalists of interior towns, has been the enormous foreign export of corn, amounting to over two millions three hundred thousand bushels, valued at $1,122,000. The export of flour has also been heavier than for any one month in the year, the aggregate export of wheat, flour and corn being, for the month, $4,923,995, and for the cereal year ending 1st inst., $48,476,691, viz.:

	MONTH OF AUGUST, 1861.		YEAR 1860-61.	
		Value.		*Value.*
Flour,.....	297,243 bbls., ..	$1,411,904 ..	2,728,012 bbls., ..	$14,727,234
Wheat,.....	2,389,645 bush., ..	2,389,645 ..	23,859,147 bush., ..	28,059,226
Corn,.....	2,338,429 " ..	1,122,446 ..	9,268,729 " ..	5,690,231
		$4,923,995		$48,476,691

The total operations for each month of the past year are represented in the following tabular statement, the average prices being for those qualities usually embraced in our foreign export trade:

FOREIGN EXPORTS OF FLOUR, WHEAT AND CORN, FOR THE YEAR ENDING AUGUST 31, 1861, FROM THE PORT OF NEW-YORK.

	Flour.			Wheat.			Corn.		
		Average price.	*Total value.*		*Average price.*	*Total value.*		*Average price.*	*Total value.*
Sept., 1860,..	251,688	$5 85	$1,472,374	2,228,924	$1 30	$2,897,601	189,726	66 c.	$128,014
Oct., " ..	270,892	5 75	1,557,629	2,600,226	1 22	3,172,275	260,098	66	171,665
Nov., " ..	228,678	5 70	1,303,465	2,472,162	1 28	3,164,367	599,581	70	419,672
Dec., " ..	187,565	5 25	984,716	2,027,145	1 15	2,331,217	851,870	66	511,122
Jan., 1861,..	168,959	5 70	963,066	882,169	1 26	1,048,533	618,261	72	441,543
Feb., " ..	186,868	5 60	1,046,461	1,060,995	1 26	1,336,853	608,751	70	422,626
March, " ..	171,589	5 50	943,464	972,688	1 25	1,215,860	789,664	68	536,971
April, " ..	211,140	5 60	1,182,384	999,843	1 28	1,279,799	1,057,004	70	739,903
May, " ..	200,008	5 50	1,100,004	1,729,108	1 25	2,161,385	799,151	68	543,423
June, " ..	271,593	5 50	1,493,761	3,577,243	1 20	4,292,692	768,968	57	438,312
July, " ..	281,779	4 50	1,268,006	2,968,999	1 00	2,968,999	897,276	54	214,529
Aug., " ..	297,243	4 75	1,411,904	2,389,645	1 00	2,389,645	2,388,429	48	1,122,446
12 months,..2,728,012			$14,727,234	23,859,147		$28,259,226	9,268,729		$5,690,231

If our computation is correct, the average value of flour exported, per barrel, has been, for the past year, about $5 40; for wheat, per bushel, $1 18; and for corn, 61 cents. The export from this port alone being in excess of forty-eight millions of dollars, and likewise in excess of the aggregate export of breadstuffs and provisions from the whole United States for either of the past two years, and largely in excess of breadstuffs export from the country for three years past. We recur to the summary published in our September number, page 268, showing the total export of breadstuffs and provisions from the United States, viz.:

	Export value of Breadstuffs.		*Export value of Provisions.*		*Aggregate of Breadstuffs and Prov.*
1857,.....	$55,624,832	....	$19,043,020	....	$74,667,852
1858,.....	33,698,490	....	16,984,795	....	50,683,285
1859,.....	24,893,413	....	13,412,578	....	38,305,991
1860,.....	27,590,298	....	17,681,552	....	45,271,850

We now annex a tabular statement of provisions exported from this and other ports for 1861, compared with the year ending September 1, 1860:

FOREIGN EXPORTS OF PROVISIONS FROM UNITED STATES PORTS, EIGHT MONTHS, 1860 AND 1861.

	Liverpool.	*London.*	*Other English ports.*	*Other foreign ports.*	*Totals,* 1861.	*Totals,* 1860.
Beef,.....tierces,	17,533	13,153	2,362	395	33,443	57,916
" .....bbls.,	1,699	3,191	156	23,054	28,098	46,492
Pork,.....tierces,	32	1,076	....	55	1,163	2,340
" .....bbls.,	7,811	6,499	1,083	86,238	101,631	92,459
Hams and bacon,....cwt.,	312,707	83,528	26,261	33,302	455,798	193,080
Lard,..... "	225,641	17,725	92,768	161,989	498,123	240,588
Butter,..... "	57,994	4,594	12,550	31,519	106,657	85,483
Cheese,..... "	144,436	8,106	11,981	12,916	177,439	138,323

The following table will show the aggregate value of the above shipments for the past two years. These figures are according to the average

market value at New-York, and differ materially from the Custom-House valuations in the treasury reports:

FOREIGN EXPORT OF PROVISIONS FROM UNITED STATES PORTS, EIGHT MONTHS, 1860–1861.

	Total, 1860.	*Average price.*	*Aggregate value.*	*Total,* 1861.	*Average price.*	*Aggregate value.*
Beef,.....tierces,	57,916	$16 00	$926,656	33,443	$15 00	$501,645
" .....bbls.,	46,492	11 00	511,422	28,098	10 50	295,029
Pork,.....tierces,	2,340	21 00	49,140	1,163	18 00	20,934
" .....bbls.,	92,459	15 00	1,386,885	101,631	13 00	132,120
Hams and bacon,..cwt.,	193,080	9 00	1,737,720	455,798	7 00	4,102,182
Lard,..... "	240,588	12 00	2,887,056	498,123	10 00	4,981,230
Butter,..... "	85,483	15 00	1,282,245	106,657	14 50	1,546,526
Cheese,..... "	138,323	7 00	968,261	177,439	6 50	1,153,353
			$9,749,385			$12,733,019

The importation of dry goods for the month of August has been exceedingly slight, less than fifteen per cent. of the value for August, 1860. Adding the quantities withdrawn from warehouse, the aggregate placed on the market is only $3,674,624, of which the following tabular statement conveys the details:

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW-YORK FOR THE MONTH OF AUGUST.

Entered for Consumption.

MANUFACTURES OF	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,.....	$4,312,916 ..	$5,250,619 ..	$5,295,056 ..	$799,175
Cotton,.....	1,789,745 ..	2,154,979 ..	1,606,459 ..	155,850
Silk,.....	3,526,725 ..	4,864,855 ..	5,330,309 ..	633,241
Flax,.....	839,927 ..	997,540 ..	757,300 ..	116,234
Miscellaneous,.....	613,826 ..	932,431 ..	980,597 ..	155,399
Total,.....	$11,083,139 ..	$14,200,354 ..	$13,969,712 ..	$1,859,899

Withdrawn from Warehouse.

MANUFACTURES OF	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,.....	$911,951 ..	$989,517 ..	$677,418 ..	$768,912
Cotton,.....	204,568 ..	188,039 ..	250,799 ..	225,636
Silk,.....	305,353 ..	142,475 ..	252,843 ..	648,746
Flax,.....	202,568 ..	113,755 ..	114,279 ..	145,487
Miscellaneous,.....	84,643 ..	42,720 ..	57,042 ..	25,944
Total,.....	$1,709,083 ..	$1,476,506 ..	$1,352,381 ..	$1,814,725
For consumption,.....	11,083,139 ..	14,200,354 ..	13,969,712 ..	1,859,899
Total on market,..	$12,792,222 ..	$15,676,860 ..	$15,322,093 ..	$3,674,624

Entered for Warehousing.

MANUFACTURES OF	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,.....	$239,236 ..	$380,120 ..	$422,654 ..	$636,601
Cotton,.....	105,683 ..	236,627 ..	356,876 ..	71,223
Silk,.....	73,243 ..	141,549 ..	128,081 ..	853,742
Flax,.....	54,270 ..	121,655 ..	71,547 ..	41,140
Miscellaneous,.....	18,969 ..	66,602 ..	40,174 ..	73,728
Total,.....	$491,401 ..	$946,553 ..	$1,019,332 ..	$1,676,434
For consumption,....	11,083,139 ..	14,200,354 ..	13,969,712 ..	1,859,899
Entered at port,...	$11,574,540 ..	$15,146,907 ..	$14,989,044 ..	$3,536,333

For the whole year 1861, embracing eight months only, the total amount of dry goods put upon the market has been a little over thirty millions; of which more than one-half was in goods withdrawn from bond. We annex the particulars for four years:

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT THE PORT OF NEW-YORK FOR EIGHT MONTHS.

For Consumption.

MANUFACTURES OF	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,.....	$ 11,980,604 ..	$ 26,369,976 ..	$23,948,703 ..	$ 6,292,684
Cotton,.....	6,676,304 ..	18,004,221 ..	11,906,656 ..	2,650,226
Silk,.....	12,381,859 ..	25,478,077 ..	26,491,404 ..	6,994,480
Flax,.....	2,955,195 ..	7,474,910 ..	4,884,295 ..	1,371,761
Miscellaneous,.....	2,396,258 ..	4,185,036 ..	4,302,362 ..	1,640,351
Total,.....	$ 36,390,220 ..	$ 81,512,220 ..	$ 71,533,210 ..	$ 18,949,502

Withdrawn from Warehouse.

MANUFACTURES OF	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,.....	$ 3,518,346 ..	$ 2,260,921 ..	$ 2,444,682 ..	$ 4,564,101
Cotton,.....	3,151,898 ..	1,308,321 ..	2,087,538 ..	3,539,426
Silk,.....	2,887,009 ..	719,331 ..	1,289,176 ..	3,957,163
Flax,.....	1,746,616 ..	770,699 ..	652,371 ..	1,421,428
Miscellaneous,.....	1,028,634 ..	313,870 ..	449,782 ..	662,611
Total,.....	$ 12,332,503 ..	$ 5,378,142 ..	$ 6,923,549 ..	$ 14,144,429
For consumption,...	36,390,220 ..	81,512,220 ..	71,533,420 ..	18,949,502
Total on market,.	$ 48,722,723 ..	$ 86,885,362 ..	$ 78,456,969 ..	$ 33,093,931

Entered for Warehousing.

MANUFACTURES OF	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,.....	$ 1,731,492 ..	$ 2,700,241 ..	$ 2,762,060 ..	$ 5,433,005
Cotton,.....	1,547,538 ..	1,148,549 ..	1,962,508 ..	3,669,568
Silk,.....	988,141 ..	667,047 ..	1,266,116 ..	4,813,025
Flax,.....	649,230 ..	559,242 ..	362,053 ..	1,339,394
Miscellaneous,.....	437,277 ..	342,592 ..	465,574 ..	847,445
Total,.....	$ 5,353,678 ..	$ 5,417,671 ..	$ 6,818,311 ..	$ 16,102,437
For consumption,...	36,390,220 ..	81,512,220 ..	71,533,420 ..	18,949,502
Entered at port,.	$ 41,743,898 ..	$ 86,929,891 ..	$ 78,351,731 ..	$ 35,051,939

The exports from New-York to foreign ports show a cessation in specie, while the exports of domestic produce exceed those of any previous year in the history of the port:

EXPORTS FROM NEW-YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF AUGUST.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Domestic produce,.....	$ 4,660,272 ..	$ 5,150,710 ..	$ 8,012,814 ..	$ 9,652,801
Foreign mdse., (free,).....	102,674 ..	374,707 ..	76,083 ..	57,965
Foreign mdse., (dutiable,).	224,438 ..	790,646 ..	191,270 ..	176,582
Specie and bullion,.....	2,201,802 ..	6,409,783 ..	7,454,813 ..	3,600
Total exports,.....	$ 7,189,186 ..	$ 12,725,846 ..	$ 15,934,900 ..	$ 9,890,448
Total, exclusive of specie,	4,987,384 ..	6,316,063 ..	8,480,087 ..	9,886,848

We may assume that the commercial features for the present month and the next four months will not vary essentially from those of July

and August. We have ample indications that the European demand for our grain and provisions will continue.

EXPORTS FROM NEW-YORK to FOREIGN PORTS FOR EIGHT MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Domestic produce,.....	$38,012,626 ..	$38,524,357 ..	$54,294,389 ..	$80,682,529
Foreign mdse., (free,)...	955,698 ..	2,139,807 ..	1,936,507 ..	1,946,619
Foreign mdse., (dutiable,).	2,782,282 ..	2,812,536 ..	3,516,331 ..	3,875,911
Specie and bullion,.....	17,363,257 ..	49,658,774 ..	35,598,550 ..	3,264,058
Total, exports,.....	$59,113,863 ..	$93,135,474 ..	$95,345,777 ..	$89,769,117
Total, exclusive of specie,	41,750,606 ..	43,476,700 ..	59,747,227 ..	86,505,059

The average custom-house receipts for August were about fifty thousand dollars per day, an aggregate of $1,558,824, against the sum of $3,946,830 for August, 1857. We annex details for four years:

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW-YORK.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
First six months,.....	$11,089,112 ..	$19,912,181 ..	$18,389,679 ..	$10,585,335
In July,.....	3,387,305 ..	4,851,246 ..	4,504,066 ..	2,069,591
In August,.....	3,545,119 ..	4,243,010 ..	4,496,243 ..	1,558,824
Total since Jan. 1st,	$18,021,536 ..	$28,606,439 ..	$27,389,988 ..	$14,213,750

The shipments of produce in August, for two years, have been extraordinarily large, and yet are largely exceeded by those of August, 1861:

EXPORTS FROM NEW-YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF AUGUST.

Year.	*Produce and Mdse.*		*Specie.*		*Total.*
1846,.....	$2,621,038	....	$57,589	....	$2,678,627
1847,.....	4,979,108	....	66,000	....	5,045,108
1848,.....	2,420,115	....	331,031	....	2,751,146
1849,.....	2,308,817	....	359,368	....	2,668,185
1850,.....	5,614,946	....	1,441,736	....	7,056,682
1851,.....	3,617,117	....	2,673,444	....	6,290,561
1852,.....	2,608,262	....	2,935,833	....	5,544,095
1853,.....	4,997,960	....	1,183,973	....	6,181,933
1854,.....	5,256,746	....	4,548,320	....	9,805,066
1855,.....	4,655,139	....	2,609,393	....	7,264,532
1856,.....	5,913,003	....	3,202,053	....	9,115,056
1857,.....	5,337,449	....	6,271,717	....	11,609,166
1858,.....	4,987,384	....	2,201,802	....	7,189,186
1859,.....	6,316,063	....	6,409,783	....	12,725,846
1860,.....	8,280,167	....	7,454,813	....	15,734,980
1861,.....	9,886,848	....	3,600	....	9,890,448

NOTE.—The article in our present No. (pp. 353—368) on the Amoor region must claim the earnest attention of the mercantile world. There is no doubt that the Amoor, with its neighbors, the Japanese islands, offer a wide field for observation and for commercial enterprise. We have the pleasure to record the fact, that both ends of the magnetic telegraph, which will eventually encompass the earth, are now in working order, viz., in part between the Mississippi and San Francisco, as the eastern terminus; and one thousand miles or more eastwardly from Moscow. In connection with this remark we add, that on the 29th ult'o the

brig TIMANDRA arrived at San Francisco in thirty days from the Amoor River, with a cargo of hides. Thus we had, on the 19th of September, by aid of the telegraph and the above arrival, advices from the Amoor to the 1st of August, only fifty days. An arrival at San Francisco from Petropolowski, on the southern border of Kamschatka, a part of Asiatic Russia, is also chronicled in August last.

The Russian government have adopted a more favorable policy towards foreigners, in consequence of which there has been a large influx of merchandise, and all kinds of business has been overdone. Merchants from the interior were purchasing but sparingly; the stocks in the country being so large, the markets were much depressed. The stocks of goods were heavy, and prices of all kinds ruled low. The late prohibition on the importation of teas in Russian Siberia and the seaboards was only temporary; new and large quantities had been received this season from China, and admitted free of duty, while at Kiachta, the great inland tea dépôt, and the only place where its importation was previously allowed, the old duty of thirty cents per pound on black and fifty cents on green was still enforced. One of the new river steamers, lately arrived from Boston, was loading a full cargo of teas for the head waters. The KASSAWITCH was also loading a general cargo at Sitka. It is announced that the government telegraph from Cikutish to Nicoloefski, across the continent of Asia, will be commenced this season, and pushed forward to completion as early as possible, under the superintendence of Mr. ROMENOFF.

There are no articles in the New-York market that have undergone greater fluctuations this year than those included in what are termed "Naval Stores," viz.: rosin, turpentine, tar and pitch. The advance in some cases within the past six months exceeds two hundred per cent. The following tabular statement will give the reader an idea of the market values of these articles and of oils, during the past three years. The supplies from North Carolina having been checked by the war, high prices will prevail, probably, for the remainder of the year:

NAVAL STORES.	*Sept.* 18*th*, 1860.	*March* 19*th*, 1861.	*Sept.* 17*th*, 1861.
Rosin, common, ... per 310 lbs.	$1 40 @	$1 20 @ $1 25	$4 00 @ $4 12½
" white and pale, ... per 280 lbs.	4 00 @ $6 00	4 00 @ 4 50	7 50 @ 9 00
Spirits turpentine, ... per gall.	40 @ 41	35½@ 36	1 25 @ 1 30
Crude " ..... per bbl.	2 80 @ 2 85	2 65 @ 2 70	10 50 @ 11 00
Tar, ... per bbl.	2 60 @ 2 70	2 20 @ 2 25	4 87½@ 5 00
Pitch, ... per bbl.	1 70 @ 1 80	1 60 @ 1 70	4 25 @ 4 50

OILS, &c.	*Sept.* 18*th*, 1860.	*March* 19*th*, 1861.	*Sept.* 17*th*, 1861.
Palm, [cask,] first quality, ... per lb.	$0 08 @ $0 08¾	$0 08½@ $0 09	$0 08½@ $0 09
Linseed, city made, ... gall.	59 @	60 @ 62	59 @ 60
Whale, refined bleached spring, . gall.	58 @ 60	58 @ 60	45 @ 50
Sperm, spring unbleached, ... gall.	1 50 @ 1 55	1 50 @ 1 60	1 40 @ 1 45
Lard, No. 1, winter, ... gall.	92½@ 1 00	95 @ 1 00	68 @ 70
Tallow, ... per lb.	09¼@ 09¾	08¾@ 08¾	07½@ 07¾

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE

OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

LONDON, *September 6th*, 1861.

To the Editors of the Merchants' Magazine:

THE leading financial features of the month were the sudden changes in the bank rate of discount. At the close of July the rate was 6 per cent. at the bank; a rate adopted on the 16th of May last. On the 1st of August the rate was reduced one per cent., viz., to a minimum of 5 per cent. On the 15th of August a further reduction took place to 4½ per cent.; and on the 29th a third change was made to 4 per cent. The fall witnessed during the last month has not often been exceeded in rapidity. In their present measure the bank directors have been guided solely by the bullion reserve and the condition of the Continental exchanges, which appear fully to justify the reduction. The fall in the rates in the open market to a point still below the new charge at the bank goes further to confirm the action of the bank; but our soundest financial men deem these changes prejudicial, and consider a low rate of discount as fostering speculation. The exchanges on the Continental cities remain generally in a satisfactory position, and gold continues to flow into the bank. Any further reduction in the same direction will probably be weighed by the directors with great deliberation, considering the deficient harvest in Scotland and Ireland, and the belief that in England the result is below an average.

In Lombard-street the demand for money was brisk, but the rates for good bills did not exceed 3⅝ to 3¾ per cent. It is worthy of record that, notwithstanding the repeated reductions in the Bank of England charge, business at that establishment last week was slack.

In consequence of the alteration at the bank, the joint-stock banks have reduced the rate allowed for deposits from 3½ to 3 per cent., except that the London and Westminster allow only 2 for sums below £500. The discount establishments will henceforward give 3 per cent. (instead of 3½) "at call," and 3¼ (instead of 3¾) "at notice."

The cotton question is really the paramount topic in commercial and financial circles throughout England. There are so many interests connected with as well as subordinate to the supply of cotton, that the minds of our leading men, both in and out of Parliament, are deeply concerned in solving the two problems: First, as to fresh sources of supply; and, secondly, as to the probabilities of (and proper measures to) adjustment between the Northern and Southern States of America. A meeting of merchants connected with the East India trade, and other parties interested in the question of cotton supply, was held here on the 29th ult., to consider the propriety of forming a joint-stock company, with adequate capital, which should establish agencies in the interior of India, to purchase the cotton from the grower "as it leaves the pod," clean it by machinery, press and pack it on the spot into bales secured

by patent metallic bands, transport it to the coast, and there sell it by sample at public auction. The promoters of the company deprecate interfering with the functions of either the grower or the exporting merchant, but claim to stimulate the production of cotton by aiding the operations of both; of the grower by giving him a ready buyer on the spot, and enabling him to free himself from the usurious middleman, who at present buys his cotton; and of the merchant, by supplying the market with well-packed cotton of uniform quality, on the sample of which, exhibited in his offices, he could buy as confidently as is done on samples in the Liverpool market. It is assumed that as the European agents of the company would exercise discrimination in the selection of cotton, the growth of better qualities would be thereby encouraged, but in respect to the complaints of its generally inferior quality, it was explained that this was not owing so much to the accident of growth as to the deterioration and adulteration to which the cotton is subjected in its passage in the present course of business from the hands of the grower to the exporting merchant. It is thought that many kinds of East India cotton would be made worth ½d. to ¾d. per pound more in the Liverpool market through the operations proposed for this company.

STOCKS OF COTTON IN LIVERPOOL EACH MONTH DURING THE YEARS 1860 AND 1861.

	Stock of American Cotton in 1861.	*Other Cotton.*	*Total*, 1861.	*Total*, 1860.
January 4,.....	371,650 ..	157,780 ..	529,430 ..	526,620
February 1,.....	483,470 ..	175,250 ..	658,720 ..	594,490
March 1,.....	692,200 ..	161,140 ..	853,340 ..	749,810
April 5,.....	789,350 ..	152,490 ..	941,840 ..	906,070
May 3,.....	816,860 ..	173,830 ..	990,690 ..	1,016,630
June 7,.....	896,760 ..	251,890 ..	1,148,650 ..	1,358,630
July 5,.....	836,610 ..	271,690 ..	1,108,300 ..	1,298,490
August 2,.....	735,550 ..	284,110 ..	1,019,660 ..	1,239,780
September,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	1,020,860
October,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	834,370
November,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	668,520
December,.....	.... ..	.... ..	.... ..	577,980

A very novel and unprecedented event has just taken place at Liverpool. At that port no less than 15,000 bales of Surat cotton were last week exported to New-York—a proof that the "cotton famine" has already affected seriously the New-England States.

A few days since we had a stock of 950,000 bales, of which 680,000 bales were American. Then we had 300,000 bales of East India cotton at sea on the way here; in addition to which we may calculate on receiving 200,000 bales from there before the 1st of January, 1862. Some well-informed persons think it will be considerably more. Of Egyptian, Brazil and other cottons we received last year, from now till the end of the year, 70,000 bales; and under the stimulus of high prices I feel justified in assuming an import of 100,000 bales by the 1st of January, 1862. This would make our total supply up to the 31st of December next, 1,550,000 bales, from which deduct export, same as last year, 200,000 bales, leaves a supply available for home use of 1,400,000.

By the Bombay *Exchange Price Current* of July 27th last, it appears that the shipments of cotton to Great Britain are still progressive. For the first six months of 1861 the shipments of cotton from Bombay to Great Britain were 626,759 bales. For same months in 1860, 299,571

bales. The whole shipments of cotton from Bombay to Europe, from January 1, 1861, to July 23d, 1861, were 744,000 bales. In addition to this, it is computed that there were then at Bombay, in 22 ships loading, at least 44,000 bales, and 30,000 more ready for shipment. The aggregate for the first seven months of 1861 is 818,000 bales. The shipments to China had fallen off some thirty thousand bales. The new crop begins to appear in October, and has been stimulated by high prices.

Apropos to this vexed question, it will not be amiss to give you the significant remarks of a cotemporary, the London *Shipping Gazette:*

"We and our neighbors across the channel may suffer serious inconvenience from a short supply of cotton—a species of inconvenience which is in store for the mill-owners of Massachusetts as well as of Manchester—*but we are not going to add to the difficulty by involving ourselves in a naval war with the Northern States—a war in which it is very doubtful that we should have the co-operation of France.* The present conflict in America will not be without its influence upon the future destinies of this country and of France, if it is learnt to distrust for the future the American source of the cotton supply, and to look to other regions for that which we have been accustomed to derive almost exclusively from the Southern States."

And the *Times* states that the wise policy of working short time as a precaution against the contingencies of the cotton supply, and of the glutted state of distant markets for manufactured goods, continues to make progress. According to the Manchester *Guardian* of this week, several spinning and weaving establishments at Staleybridge, Oldham, Preston, Blackburn, Burnley and Clitheroe, have limited their operations *to four days a week.*

Fires of late have been frightfully on the increase, and the rates of premium have been largely and suddenly advanced; let these heavy losses go on in the same ratio, and our underwriters urge *that it will not be a question of merely raising the premium, but of whether certain descriptions of property will be insurable at all.* What is wanted is a stringent building act, something like that which has made Liverpool what it is. Since that act (which unfortunately is only local) has come into operation there, about 900 warehouses have received certificates of having adopted the improvements required by it, and the result is, that the premium of insurance on these very premises has fallen from 35s. per cent. to 6s.

That fire insurance ought largely to increase there can be no doubt, and that it would largely increase were the enormous government duty to be entirely abolished, our companies believe, although on this subject there are differences of opinion, as will be seen by the following extract from the recent report of the Commissioners of Inland Revenue:

"The steady increase of the fire insurance duty is worthy of notice. It is very striking when viewed as representing the value of the property insured in the form of the following account:

Years.	*Account of Property Insured.*		*Amount of Farming Stock Insured, (free of duty.)*
1850,.....	£ 773,021,000	.....	£ 61,805,352
1860,.....	1,039,891,000	.....	73,309,898
Increase,.....	£ 26,687,000	.....	£ 11,504,546

The British government have for many years promoted commercial intercourse with foreign countries by means of extensive and liberal mail arrangements. It is now officially announced, that, with a view of affording to the public more frequent opportunities than at present exist for forwarding letters to Bermuda, it is intended in future to despatch a mail for Bermuda by each of the CUNARD packets proceeding to New-York. These extra mails will be conveyed from New-York to Bermuda by means of private ships, as opportunities offer. The postage upon letters forwarded by this route will be 9d. for a letter not exceeding half an ounce in weight, 1s. 6d. for a letter above half an ounce and not exceeding one ounce, 3s. for a letter above one ounce and not exceeding two ounces, and so on for heavier letters. This postage must be paid in advance, or the letters will be liable to an extra charge on delivery. Upon newspapers a postage of 1d. each must be prepaid. A like sum of 1d. will be collected on their delivery, to cover the United States' transit rate of postage.

The beneficial effects of extensive mail facilities by sea are every year more fully demonstrated, with the immense advantages to commerce from judicious government aid. The CUNARD Company are at present engaged in reorganizing their steam fleet, by the sale of some of their steam vessels and the construction of more powerful ones, furnished with all the modern improvements. A short time since the ETNA was sold to the Inman Company, and we have now to record the sale of the JURA to the Montreal Ocean Steamship Company, for the Canadian mail service. The JURA is a fine screw steamer, of about 2,200 tons and 400 horse-power, and did good service as a transport during the Crimean war. In the course of two or three months the CUNARD Company will have two new steamers completed, from the workshop of Messrs. ROBERT NAPIER & SON, which will probably be the finest specimens of their respective classes in existence. One is the SCOTIA, a paddle steamer, about 700 tons larger than the PERSIA, and the other the CHINA, screw steamer. Both vessels are intended for the mail service between Liverpool and New-York.

The report of the select committee, appointed to consider the circumstances which induced the government to abrogate the Galway postal contract, has been laid before the House of Commons. The committee express their approval of the conduct of the Postmaster-General, but urge that, as the Atlantic Steamship Company will shortly be in possession of an efficient fleet of ships, they deserve the favorable consideration of the government, should it be deemed advisable to re-establish a postal service from Ireland to America.

Steamship-building on the Clyde is more active than before reported. Messrs. SCOTT & Co. have launched a screw, of 580 tons, named the LOUIS NAPOLEON, which is now being fitted with engines of 130 horse-power by the Greenock Foundry Company. She is built for a Marseilles firm, and is a sister ship to the COMTE BACCIOCHI and the ROI JEROME, constructed last year by the same builders for the same parties. Messrs. TOD & MACGREGOR, of Patrick, who recently launched a screw of 419 tons, have almost completed a similar steamer for the same parties, and they have an order for a third steamer for the same trade. The hopes of increased commercial intercourse with France, in consequence of the recent treaty, have induced the establishment of a new line of screw steamers, to run from Havre and Bordeaux to the Clyde. The steamers will leave every fortnight.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1. *Hopes and Fears; or, Scenes from the Life of a Spinster.* By the author of "The Heir of Redclyffe," &c. New-York: D. Appleton & Co.

This last book of Miss Yonge's we consider decidedly unsuccessful. A religious novel which leaves an anti-religious impression, is a failure as a literary production and an offence to every thoughtful reader. The authoress has put cleverness at a discount, but has labelled dullness "Piety," and commands us to like it.

If we were as good as some of her model blockheads, we should be able to love the odious creature, just for being told so; not having arrived at that advanced stage of Christian culture, we only shake our heads at it, and ponder upon the confidential remark of a pert little friend, "I suppose sister Mag's a Christian, but she's so ugly-good, I had as lief she wasn't." All the characters in this story are divided into the good and the bad—the sheep and the goats—with a strong fence of religious reserve between them. The goats are dancing, prancing, frisky little creatures; full of life and fun; always peeping through the fence; quite inclined to good-fellowship, and ready to jump over or creep under, upon the least encouragement. But the sheep stand in serried file, prepared to butt to the earth the first unwary victim who dares to invade the sanctity of their side, and they never stop crying, "Go away! go away! we are saints and you are sinners! go away! and don't blat through the bars, you disturb our meditations."

We like the goats, but the sheep bore us villainously, and, if we may be allowed to borrow our young friend's phraseology, we should characterize them thus: Robert, ugly-good; Phœbe, stupid-good; Pendergrast, silly-good, and Spinster, sentimental-good. The only one that is pleasant-good is Humphrey, and he, to prevent us from attaching ourselves to goodness in any form, is extricated from his mortal coil in an early chapter. Every one of them seems to be perfectly satisfied with his own spiritual condition; they have fortunes left them, and become popular in society and successful in love. As for the goats, poor wretches! they have a pitiful time enough; sickness, poverty, and banishment, the loss of friends and lovers, personal disfigurement and mental deterioration, are a few of the little casualties which befal them. From such premises we necessarily draw the conclusions that good people are dull, that wicked people are clever, and that the moral accounts of both are settled up each new year's, like a butcher's bill, and the proper recompense put into execution immediately thereafter. But we do not believe this, because it is directly opposed to our own experience, which, if not large, has yet been decided.

The wickedest people we know are those with the feeblest minds; the best people we know are those with the noblest intellects and deepest culture; and as for every one's getting what they deserve in this world, the simplest child knows better.

Neither do we think that Miss Yonge meant to teach such a lesson; the tenor of her former books is enough to indicate the opinions she holds; it is only her strong desire to make goodness attractive and evil repellant that has beguiled her into coaxing and scaring, and caused her to forget that such weak allies, "make truth suspected."

2. *The Silent Woman.* By the author of "King's Cope," &c. Boston: T. O. H. P. Burnham. New-York: Sheldon & Co.

The author of this novel shows far more talent than industry; the plot is passably good, the conception of one of the characters, (that of Lena,) is very charming, the conversations are sprightly, even brilliant at times, but the construction of the book is extremely negligent. The title has no apparent connection with the story, nor the majority of the mottoes with the contents of the chapters. The changes of time and place are made with ludicrous abruptness; for example, persons on the lawn are presently said to leave the *room;* people at supper suddenly begin to comment on the dullness of the morning; and a lady and gentleman in a drawing-room enter at once into a discussion about an equestrian upon the road in advance of them.

There is not a shred of deep feeling in the book, of any kind; not for want of occasion, truly, for there are two deaths in the first chapter, and half a dozen more before you arrive at the last; but then, as the author very aptly remarks, there is no use in describing this sort of thing, for those who have been through with it know, ah! too well, what it is, and to those who have not, words are a blank. It is no doubt a charity to spare the uninitiated, yet we cannot suppress the surmise that it may also have been a personal accommodation to the writer. It is a pity that one who can so well entertain his readers by his vivacity and wit, should be so very heedless; for the cleverness which he perhaps supposed would atone for all deficiencies, is, to a great extent, neutralized by his own indolence.

3. *An Abstract of the Returns made to the Lords of the Committee of Privy Council for Trade, of Wrecks and Casualties which occurred on and near the coasts of the United Kingdom, from the 1st January to the 31st December, 1860, with a statement of the number of lives lost and saved; of the amounts granted out of the Mercantile Marine Fund as rewards for the salvage of life, for contributions towards the maintenance of life-boats, and for expenses in connection with the Mortar and Rocket Apparatus for saving life, during the same period; and a precis of the special inquiries instituted into the causes of such wrecks and casualties, by order of the Board of Trade, with charts.*

This is an annual official report of great value. The wreck chart accompanying the report shows the locality of every casualty (including collisions) attended with loss of life, distinguishing the number of lives lost, and the direction of the wind in each case; showing also the present life-boat and rocket and mortar stations on the whole coast. That portion of the Irish channel approaching Liverpool indicates the largest number of losses. The approaches to the Thames, to the Bristol channel and to the river Thames are also prolific in heavy marine losses. In addition to the marine statistics of the year 1860, this Parliamentary document shows the comparative losses, partial losses, collisions, loss of life, insurance, for each year, 1852–1860, with a mass of valuable details. Some attempts have been made, in New-York, to prepare marine statistics of a similar character for the United States, but the efforts were not seconded by government or individual companies. The Treasury Department could, with advantage, prepare such statistics as a branch of commercial information. In the absence of governmental support the State of New-York might inaugurate a system of commercial and marine statistics; and the marine insurance companies of this city would derive much advantage from such information after a series of years.

4. *Explorations and Adventures in Equatorial Africa; with accounts of the manners and customs of the people, and of the chase of the gorilla, the crocodile, leopard, elephant, hippopotamus and other animals.* By PAUL B. DU CHAILLU, corresponding member of the American Ethnological Society; of the Geographical and Statistical Society of New-York, and of the Boston Society of Natural History. With numerous illustrations. New-York: HARPER & BROTHERS. 1861.

M. CHAILLU exhibited the curious collection of natural history specimens exhibited about a year ago in this country. The wonderful stuffed specimens of the giant ape, the gorilla, whose very existence had almost been deemed a fable, and the curious kaloo kamba, the great ape that so imitates humanity in its habits, besides numerous other specimens of birds and beasts entirely unknown to naturalists, were trophies of the adventurous Frenchman's zeal, courage and perseverance. DU CHAILLU'S explorations were made in a different direction from those of other African travellers, and his adventures are of the most interesting and exciting character. We have prepared for this number some curious extracts from this work in reference to the trade and commerce of Africa. (pp. 369—373.)

5. *Tom Brown at Oxford. A sequel to "School Days of Rugby."* Part 2. Boston: TICKNOR & FIELDS.

This excellent story gives a most faithful picture of English University life, and is told in a familiar, easy and natural style, and describes the career of hundreds of young Englishmen of the present day in the story of TOM BROWN and his fellow students. As a graphic description of English life, it is most excellent; and as a story quite interesting. The reader is pleased to learn that TOM at last, after many tribulations, is happily married to his true love, MARY PORTER.

6. *The British Quarterly Reviews.*

We suggest to our readers that the present time is favorable to subscribe to these valuable and interesting works, re-published by Messrs. LEONARD SCOTT & Co., New-York. The articles which appear in these various reviews, in relation to American affairs, are all worthy of attentive perusal, since they give, from different points of view, the opinions of intelligent Englishmen, belonging to various parties, (conservative, whig, free-church, liberal and tory,) on our disturbances. "Blackwood," for July, contains ten articles, all of which are marked with those traits of power and brilliancy for which MAGA has long since become distinguished.

The Edinburgh Review, for July, contains articles on—1st. Popular Education. 2. ALBERT DUROR. 3. Carthage and her Remains. 4. The Novels of FERNAN CABALLERO. 5. WATSON'S Life of PORSON, the Greek Scholar. 6. The Countess of Albany, the last of the STUARTS and ALFIERI. 7. BUCKLE'S History of Civilization. 8. Travels of M. CHAILLU. 9. Church Reform in Italy. 10. Count CAVOUR. Mr. BUCKLE, according to the critic, "is not a writer who gains upon us by a further acquaintance with his works. * * He relies too much upon a well-stored common place book and a rapacious literary appetite." Of M. DU CHAILLU the critic says: "We should be glad of a little more of that precise and simple evidence which distinguishes reality from romance."

7. *The Westminster Review*, for July, is the 139th number, or the thirty-fifth year of its existence. The subjects are—1. SCHLEIERMACHER, the Philo of modern times. 2. The Salmon Fisheries of England. 3. The critical writings of H. TAINE. 4. Considerations on Representative Government. 5. The Countess of Albany—ALFIERI. 6. Africa, by M. CHAILLU. 7. BUCKLE'S Civilization. 8. Christian Creeds and their Defenders. 9. Contemporary Literature.

"The Westminster" maintains that "Mr. BUCKLE has many great qualifications which give him an especial claim to hearing." * * The reviewer concludes, that "as a great effort to illuminate one of the most important questions which at present can occupy men's consideration, it is entitled to the sympathy and admiration of all impartial readers."

8. *The London Quarterly Review*, for July, takes up M. DE QUINCEY and his writings, who reached the seventy-fifth year of his age, notwithstanding his addiction at one time to opium eating. 2. MONTALEMBERT on Western Monarchism. 3. KENNEDY, HENRY, SINGLETON and OWGAN, as translators of Virgil. 4. Ancient Law, by HENRY SUMNER MAINE. 5. Scottish Character. 6. Russia on the Amoor. 7. CAVOUR and Italy. 8. Democracy on its trial. 9. MILL on Representative Government.

The "Quarterly" *buckles* on to the "History of Civilization," and exclaims, "How can he hope to be accepted as a scientific investigator of history who shows himself so full of passion and prejudice as Mr. BUCKLE does throughout this work?" Our commercial readers will find the article on the *Amoor* without any *love* towards Russia or the United States; but we commend to the merchant's attention both the review and the work which forms its text. The reviewer takes occasion to say that "the systematic occupation of the Amoor River by the Russians was as indefensible by the law of nations as any of the aggressions to which we are in the habit of referring as some of the worst results of popular government in the New World, and proves that *a low sense of international morality is the characteristic alike of democracy and of despotism.*" Should Mr. BUCKLE ever stretch his pen to the consideration of the progress of civilization in the Western world, we fear that the recent history of the United States, especially as to Texas, Central America and Africa, and especially as to the internal war of the year 1861, will stamp us as possessing a very low sense of international morality.

9. *The Law of Nations affecting Commerce during War; with a review of the jurisdiction, practice and proceedings in Prize Courts.* By FRANCIS H. UPTON, LL. B. One volume octavo, pp. 312. Published by J. S. VOORHIES, N. Y.

To the legal profession and to merchants this is a valuable compend of the law of maritime warfare and prize, including the law of belligerent and neutral rights—of blockade—of contraband—the right of search—of capture—re-capture—joint capture—military salvage, &c., in application to the existing war in the United States. The appendix contains the numerous proclamations of the year 1861; letter from Sir W. SCOTT to Mr. JAY; prize rules of the United States Court; statute provisions of the United States for distribution of prize fund, &c.

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J. SMITH HOMANS, (SECRETARY OF THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF THE STATE OF NEW-YORK,)

AND WILLIAM B. DANA, ATTORNEY AT LAW.

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THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

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COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

NOVEMBER, 1861.

OUR MERCANTILE MARINE.

THE TONE OF THE SERVICE DEGENERATING—CAUSE OF THIS DEGENERACY—EVIDENCE OF THE SAME—FRAUDULENT SHIPWRECKS—OPINIONS OF HAMBURG UNDERWRITERS—COMPARISON OF PER CENTAGE OF DISASTERS IN ENGLISH SERVICE WITH OUR OWN—CERTIFICATES OF SERVICE AND COMPETENCY ISSUED IN THESE COUNTRIES—A SIMILAR SYSTEM NECESSARY HERE—ADVANTAGES OF THIS SYSTEM TO SHIPMASTERS, SHIP-OWNERS AND UNDERWRITERS—SUGGESTIONS ABOUT THE COLLECTION OF STATISTICS OF DISASTERS, AND BENEFITS TO BE DERIVED THEREFROM—RECAPITULATION AND CONCLUSION.

ARCHBISHOP WHATELY says, what hardly any thinking man will now deny, "If oaths were abolished—leaving the penalties for false witness (no unimportant part of our security) unaltered—I am convinced that, on the whole, testimony would be more trustworthy than it is." It will be admitted that there is an amazing difference between the facility with which oaths are broken, when there is no penalty, or an insufficient one, attached to their forfeiture, and when the penalty for perjury is sharp and severe. The records of our custom-houses and our courts bear witness to the truth of these assertions. Many a man will run the risk of having his goods confiscated, who would hesitate to perjure himself in a witness' box. Hence it is evident that it is the penalty, and not the oath that most people respect. That this should be so does not, indeed, argue well for human nature; but then we must always take men as they are, and not as they ought to be, in providing checks against possible misconduct. It is true that a sense of honor has sufficient influence in many men's minds to keep them in the paths of rectitude; but the experience of daily life too clearly proves that with most men the fear of punishment has greater influence. A self-approving conscience is, by no means, always sufficient. Merit must be distinguished from incompetency, or men will cease aspiring to attain it. The truth of these remarks is clearly demonstrated by the present condition of our mercantile marine service. It is generally admitted that the tone of that service, both for

character and efficiency, has greatly degenerated from its former standard. The reasons for this degeneracy are undoubtedly to be found in the facility with which incompetent men obtain commands, and the absence of any distinction between good and bad masters. Competent men and careful navigators must now be satisfied with the approval of their own consciences; and have, at the same time, the mortification of seeing others totally unfit for the responsibilities they assume, or careless and even dishonest in the discharge of them, entrusted with commands almost as readily as themselves.

As the practice of insuring ships is now universal, and as competition among insurance companies has rendered the facilities for obtaining this protection from the hazards of the sea very great, it will be seen that ship-owners have not the same direct interest in the loss of their ships that they would have if compelled to bear the burden of it themselves. And, consequently, they are not so careful in the choice, or so strict in the dismissal of their masters as they would be under a different system. It is true that merchants do really bear the burden, for if losses are unnecessarily increased by the acts of inefficient or dishonest masters, insurance premiums must be increased accordingly; and, therefore, although insurance companies *seem* to be the only sufferers, it must be remembered that they in reality only distribute the losses among their customers.

It is, therefore, a matter of the highest importance, both to shipmasters and ship-owners, that reforms should be adopted. Some system should be inaugurated by which competent and worthy men should have the preference in obtaining commands, and by which dishonesty could be exposed and punished, thus insuring greater protection to life and property at sea, and diminishing a serious burden upon commerce.

Any one who will take the trouble to consult the records of marine losses published in our daily papers, cannot fail to be struck with the fact of their enormous magnitude. The annual estimates for 1860 were over twenty-eight millions of dollars, and for the year before thirty-seven and a half millions; and a careful perusal of the circumstances of these losses will make it evident that many of them need never have happened. Many ships have been abandoned at sea and afterwards picked up and brought into port, and some vessels have been forsaken by their captains and brought home by their mates.

A very graphic and forcible writer in one of the daily papers* remarks, that "the dishonesty of some masters is believed to be a prolific cause of losses. Instances of this kind are to be met with in all parts of the world, but there are some particular quarters where they seem to occur more frequently, owing to facilities for collusion and fraudulent shipwrecks. Those who read the columns of our paper devoted to marine news cannot fail to have noticed the great number of wrecks taking place in the vicinity of the Bahama Islands. The navigation there is undoubtedly beset with difficulties, but they are so well known and understood, and so many light-houses and marks have been erected, that watchful, skillful and honest shipmasters have passed and repassed, at all seasons of the year, and for many years, without disaster, unless under such extraordinary adverse circumstances of wind and weather as clearly and reasonably accounted for their misfortune, while their conduct after shipwreck has

* *Courier and Enquirer*, January, 1860.

left no suspicion as to their integrity. But there is another side to the picture; and we are pained to say that the instances of shipwreck are numerous in which the circumstances plainly show that the cause has not been 'the perils of the sea,' but a deliberate and wilful intention and collusion to commit fraud for personal gain, abetted, connived at, screened and shared by wreckers and disreputable persons residing on some of the Bahama Islands, an exorbitant salvage on the cargo being agreed upon among themselves by private arbitration, and the wreck subsequently burned to prevent her recovery or to avoid investigation. And notwithstanding the disposition evinced by the governor of the Bahamas, the magistracy and many of the best citizens to suppress these disgraceful and piratical proceedings, their efforts are very seldom successful, and the dishonest shipmaster, whose acts have not been investigated by the consular representative of his own country, escapes unpunished to enjoy the fruits of his fraud, throwing a heavy loss upon the merchant or insurer, and a disgrace upon the profession of shipmaster."

In other countries, where stricter rules for the appointment and stricter investigations into the misconduct of shipmasters prevail, the losses are neither so heavy nor are fraudulent ones so frequent. Thus, it is asserted, that in the trade between Cuba and Hamburg, although directly in the path where some of our worst losses occur, no Hamburg ship has been lost in twenty years.* It is notorious, that in that country shipmasters have to undergo strict examinations as to character and capacity before obtaining commands; and a proof of the care they take of their ships is to be seen in the low rates of insurance there. The American consul at Hamburg makes the following remarks on this subject in his official report, published in the "*Commercial Relations*" for 1859:

"In reply to certain questions which, at the request of the President of the Atlantic Insurance Company, of New-York, I had asked of a Hamburg insurance broker, the following replies were received, giving information as to the rates and customs which obtain here in regard to marine insurance, and the estimation in which American shipping is held by Hamburg underwriters:

"'The premium charged on first-class, A No. 1 vessels is 7½ per cent. per annum; but underwriters here would refuse to take at this rate any American (United States) vessel, because they know that there are few hands on board who are thorough sailors, many of them never having been to sea before, and even their captains very often knowing nothing of seamanship, leaving the whole command in reality to the mates.

"'Hamburg masters, as well as mates, have to undergo very strict examination before they are allowed to take command. The same is true of Denmark, Sweden and Prussia; their vessels are, consequently, considered by Hamburg underwriters just as good risks.

"'The premium from Hamburg to New-York and home is, in the summer season, two per cent., and rises in the winter to three and a half.'"

A similar system of examining masters and mates before intrusting them with commands prevails in England, and is attended with like beneficial results. The British Board of Trade report for the year 1860 gives the per centage of disasters as compared with voyages, as follows:

* This assertion is made upon the authority of a foreign consul at Key West.

For the eight years, from 1852 to 1860, $\frac{47}{100}$ of one per cent., or one accident in every two hundred and thirteen voyages; and for the year 1860 alone, $\frac{57}{100}$ of one per cent., or one in every one hundred and eighty-eight voyages. This per centage includes accidents of every kind, great and small, and the voyages include over-sea and coasting. On the other hand, the proportion of accidents to American ships to the number of voyages is, as near as can be estimated with the imperfect data at command, for the year 1860, $1\frac{33}{100}$ per cent., or one accident of some kind in every seventy-five voyages.* This, it will be seen, is more than double the per centage for English ships.

In contrast with this present degeneracy of the service, we quote the remark of an experienced shipmaster about the standing of American ships in former days. He says, that in the year 1832, when he was lying in the port of Trieste, there were many American ships waiting for cargoes, and not a single British ship could obtain a freight until all these were filled, so decided was then the preference for our vessels. Contrast this with the statement of the Hamburg insurance broker, and the inference is plain that the tone of the service must have indeed degenerated.

It would thus appear that our experience of marine disasters contrasts unfavorably with that of other countries, since insurances are more profitable in Hamburg, and British statistics show a much smaller per centage of accidents than ours. Both of these countries have adopted a system of giving certificates of competency and service to capable and worthy shipmasters. And in each of them strict investigations are made in all cases of suspicious disaster, and where the master is proved to be at fault, he is either suspended for a time from service, or has his certificate cancelled altogether; and when this happens he is unable to obtain a command. It is evident, therefore, that unless similar measures are adopted in this country, the present degeneracy in its mercantile marine will continue to increase, the number of fraudulent shipwrecks will be greatly augmented, and our commerce will be so burdened by this shameful waste of capital that we will be unable to compete with our rivals for commercial supremacy.

No class of men are, perhaps, more directly interested in a reform of this kind than the shipmasters themselves. All men are more or less influenced by their surroundings, and the peculiar hardships and dangers of a sailor's life seem to beget peculiar characteristics. They are often careless and reckless, but are, at the same time, particularly sensitive to

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* The estimate above given is obtained in the following manner: The Commerce and Navigation Report of the Secretary of the Treasury for 1860 gives the number of entries of American vessels at the different United States ports as 12,206, and the number of clearances of the same as 12,682. Now, as every entry and every clearance represent a voyage begun or ended, we have, for the foreign trade of the year, 24,888 voyages—in round numbers say 25,000; and estimating the coasting voyages as at least double, we have a total number of voyages of American ships during the year of about 75,000. The whole number of disasters to these ships during the same period, according to a report published by Mr. Isaac H. Upton in the Merchants' Magazine for July, 1861, amounts to 839. But as this sum does not include the minor disasters, which are all included in the British report, we may safely set down the casualties of all kinds as about 1,000 in number. This, compared with the 75,000 voyages, would give the per centage of 1 33-100, as above, or one accident in every seventy-five voyages.

praise and blame. A self-approving conscience may be sufficient for some, but public opinion has more weight with most of them. And when we add to the disgrace of forfeiting a certificate the certain loss of occupation it will necessarily entail, we provide the strongest possible safeguard for efficiency and good conduct in any class of men, and especially in a class unfitted, both by their temperament and habits, to bear disgrace or to change their occupation. On the other hand, by thus distinguishing between competent and worthy shipmasters, and incompetent and dishonest ones, we raise the tone of the whole service, and thus make a sailor's life more attractive to men of intelligence and high character. All such men will sympathize with these reforms, and the class who will probably disapprove of them is the very one that makes their establishment a necessity. By this means a laudable ambition would be instilled into the minds of all honest shipmasters, who, as long as they held their certificates, would necessarily be regarded as such; while, on the other hand, a wholesome fear of disgrace would be held up to those who, without this dread of punishment, might be dishonestly disposed. It seems only reasonable to suppose that a sense of honor, and a feeling of responsibility for the lives and property under his charge, would prevent any man from taking the command of a ship who felt himself incompetent for the task; or would cause one who did so to use his best efforts for the successful accomplishment of the voyage. But the facts prove that this is not the case. Incompetent men do notoriously obtain commands, and many ships are lost by the carelessness or inefficiency of their commanders. The sense of honor is not always a sufficient safeguard. The fear of punishment may be. As to the feeling of responsibility for life and property, it has been said, perhaps too harshly, but nevertheless with much truth, that the former consideration has always been of minor importance in comparison with the love of gain; and as to the loss of property, the insurance companies prevent the owner from feeling that directly, and as the master is, of course, aware of this, it may not be without its influence with him, especially if the vessel be old, unseaworthy or badly out of repair. It has been remarked, however, that in cases of fraudulent shipwreck the master and crew generally escape. When a man sets out purposely to wreck his vessel it is natural that he should select a safe place, or he might be disappointed in his unrighteous plans, and find, when death stared him in the face, that what was meant to be a fraud, had in reality become to him, at least, a misfortune.

The history of modern science demonstrates no truth more clearly than this, that great results are not arrived at suddenly, as it were by inspiration, but only come by patient and laborious investigation. Thousands of observers have watched and recorded the phenomena of the heavens, ingenious men have applied their observations to the science of navigation, and generation after generation have passed their lives in collecting apparently insignificant facts, before it became possible, by their collected experience, to navigate the trackless sea. But now, by the aid of the compass and the sextant, and the collected experience of those who have gone before him, the sailor finds the sea as well mapped out as the land, and its pathways have become as definitely marked as the highways of the shore. But although much has been accomplished, much more perhaps remains to be done. The field is wide enough for all the observers that can possibly investigate it, and the results of the labors of

the late superintendent of the Washington Observatory, MAURY, have clearly proved to sailors both how much there is to see, and how much can result from intelligent observations made after a uniform plan. Thousands of log-books have been examined by this patient man, and the experience of all these observers collected in his wind and current charts. All that relates to the theory of storms is still, however, hardly more than conjecture, and in this and other directions great discoveries yet remain to be made. How necessary, then, not only for the material interests of commerce, but for the greater interests of science, is it that shipmasters should be men of intelligence and capable of appreciating the wonders that are daily spread out before them. How much nobler the ambition to extend the domain of knowledge than to accumulate ill-gotten gains. To add a mite, however small, to that fund in which consists the true riches of mankind, rather than by dishonest acts to accumulate wealth which is only a disgrace to its possessor. Nor are these results alone of scientific value. Their practical importance in diminishing the cost of carrying cargoes by shortening the time required to make voyages, (which alone is a most essential benefit to commerce,) has thus been ingeniously estimated by a writer in HUNT'S MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE for May, 1854:

"According to Mr. MAURY the average freight from the United States to Rio de Janeiro is 17.7 cents per ton per day; to Australia, 20 cents; to California also about 20 cents. The mean of this is a little over 19 cents per ton a day; but, to be within the mark, we will take it at 15, and include all the ports of South America, China and the East Indies.

"The sailing directions have shortened the passage to California thirty days; to Australia, twenty days; to Rio Janeiro, ten days. The mean of this is twenty, but we will take it at fifteen, and also include the above named ports of South America, China and the East Indies. We estimate the tonnage of the United States engaged in trade with these places at 1,000,000 tons per annum. With these data, we see that there has been effected a saving for each one of these tons of fifteen cents per day for a period of fifteen days, which will give an aggregate of $2,250,000 saved per annum. This is on the outward voyage alone, and the tonnage trading with all other parts of the world is also left out of the calculation. Take these into consideration, and also the fact that there is a vast amount of foreign tonnage trading between these places and the United States, it will be seen that the annual sum saved will swell to an enormous amount."

It need hardly be said that merchants, as a class, and especially those connected with shipping, have a great interest at stake in promoting these proposed reforms. For it requires but little argument to prove that if the underwriters pay the losses directly, the merchants have to make it up in the long run. And, therefore, when losses are unnecessarily increased by the incompetency or misconduct of shipmasters, the burden falls finally upon the shipowners. Here, as with the shipmasters, it is the higher class of merchants that will gain by the alteration of the present system, and it is only the less scrupulous portion who will feel themselves oppressed by it. Those shipowners who are careful in the selection of their masters, and, it may be added, who are also conscientious in repairing and fitting out their ships, are now taxed with high premiums made necessary by the carelessness or cupidity of men of an

entirely different grade. Nor is it only in the high premiums charged that injustice is at present done to honest men, but also in the distribution of the profits, the worthy and the unworthy get an equal share. The merchant, whose ill-fitted out and inefficiently officered ships have, by the claims which are the natural results of such antecedents, considerably diminished the profits of the insurers, still receives from them an equal per centage of their scrip with the one, whose example generally followed, would cause a great decrease to appear in the annual amounts of losses to be paid. Now, if a society were established to issue certificates to competent masters, and if only such as held certificates were allowed to command ships, the number of these fraudulent claims would probably be greatly lessened. It is not pretended that a society would have any greater facilities for selecting competent men for shipmasters than individuals now have, if they took the pains to use them; but, at the same time, it is believed that the fear of losing a certificate through misconduct, and the disgrace and loss of occupation that would result from it, would make some men less unscrupulous and more careful than they appear to be now. The society would only do as an organization what individuals ought to do, but fail to do privately; and the greater publicity of its actions, and the mass of information concerning the character and ability of shipmasters that would soon accumulate on its records, would give more importance to its selections and rejections; and would be of great service to the merchants seeking for a fit person to take charge of his property, and to the underwriter in investigating suspicious losses. When the same man's name figures conspicuously in the disaster list, and the ships that he commands are seen to be uniformly "unlucky," as it is facetiously termed, both merchant and underwriter can take warning, the one how he employs and the other how he insures him. As these facts accumulate they will serve to show where the bad losses occur, and as these particulars are annually classified and recorded, it will soon be evident what losses are really caused by the "perils of the sea," and what by the fraudulent acts of man. When this knowledge is obtained a more just division of profits may ensue; but at present, while the underwriters are almost in the dark, and while discrimination is thus impossible, the present plan must be continued.

Although these facts are so evident that every merchant will readily admit them; and although every intelligent shipowner is aware that a wicked waste of property, no matter who owns it, or who insures it, is a loss which must finally fall upon him, in part, as a member of the mercantile community; although these things are undoubtedly true and are known to all, still busy men, eager to secure their private fortunes, do not appear to heed them. And in the haste to get rich a little sooner by close attention to individual concerns, men often refuse to act in concert even for their own acknowledged interests.

The question of how to diminish these needless losses comes, however, in so practical a way to the underwriters, that from them the first steps in the proposed reform should undoubtedly emanate. They have the advantage of organization, and, with the assistance of prominent shipowners, should at once form an association to ensure the better safety of life and property at sea. If they do not take some steps of this kind, and allow the present evils to increase, the result must be disastrous in the extreme to them. Their losses will increase so greatly that the pre-

miums must be much augmented, or the companies will inevitably fail; and with their failure greatly embarrass commercial enterprise. Even now foreign companies are able successfully to compete with ours for their best risks; and this must necessarily induce many merchants to insure abroad, who would find it more convenient to insure in this country, if it were equally economical. The reason why these institutions are able to offer better terms than ours is to be found, it is believed, in the facilities which their regulations afford of encouraging competent and careful masters, and of disgracing and dismissing dishonest ones. Having thus a large proportion of what are technically known as "good risks" on their books, they can afford to insure the best of ours at a lower rate than we, without materially increasing their per centage of losses, but greatly diminishing our proportion of profits.

Such a society, although started by the underwriters, can never become a success, unless supported by the active aid and good will of both shipowners and shipmasters. With these, its success is certain; without them, its failure equally so. Its aims in the beginning would of course be more limited than they would naturally become when their importance and usefulness are more generally understood and appreciated. At first, it might confine itself to the issuing of certificates of service and competency to men of experience and ability. Records of disasters would of course be kept, and, when suspicious losses occurred to vessels commanded by persons holding its certificates, investigations would naturally be held. As these records accumulated, they might be tabulated and compared with the whole number of voyages, and per centages obtained as a guide for insurance premiums. They might also be arranged in various ways, and the per centages of particular trades, of vessels of a certain class or grade, or vessels laden with different kinds of cargoes, obtained. The different kinds of disasters, the fires, the strandings, the collisions, &c., might all be classified. In a word, such a collection of statistics might be arranged in every conceivable manner, and in every way be of service. The experience of all the companies, which each individual institution might be unwilling to publish separately for the benefit of the rest, might, in the aggregate, be subjected to similar classification for the general benefit. In life insurance, such collections of statistics have been productive of the most valuable results; and the analogy between the two branches of insurance, the life and the marine, is sufficient to warrant the assertion, that if an equal number of facts about the proportion of loss to safety, in marine insurance, were collected, that at present exist about the proportion of deaths to the living, for the use of life insurers, the same exactness would soon be arrived at in the one business that now prevails in the other. A society of this kind, started in New-York, would probably be followed by similar organizations in the other seaports of the United States; and between these a daily meteorological record might be telegraphed, and warning thus given of coming storms. This experiment has been successfully tried in France and England, and has been recommended as a desirable thing to adopt in this country, by Professor MAURY. The holders of certificates in different parts of the world, sailing over various seas and visiting different climates, would undoubtedly take pleasure in communicating to the society any interesting phenomena about storms, winds, currents or climates that came under their notice, and such communica-

tions, in the mass, might be a very valuable addition to a merchant's or an underwriter's knowledge.

Reforms, however, to be undertaken successfully, must be undertaken cautiously, and it is only by slow degrees, and step by step, that important changes can prudently be made. In the beginning, such an organization as the one proposed would probably have to encounter many prejudices, and perhaps some positive hostility; but it is believed that a thorough understanding of the nature of the evils which it proposes to remedy, and of the important benefits to the commercial world which will necessarily result from its establishment, will be sufficient to enlist for it the hearty sympathy of shipmasters, shipowners and underwriters.

Of shipmasters, because, by weeding their profession of its unworthy members, the tone of the service will be raised, and a better class of men will join its ranks—men who, by their faithfulness and intelligence, will at once increase our commercial supremacy, by adding cautiousness and honesty, to maritime adventure and enterprise; and who will play an important part in adding contributions to the science of the seas, from which so much has already resulted.

Of merchants, because they are at present burdened with high premiums, and would be seriously embarrassed by their further increase; and because they, as a class, love their country too well to neglect any means that promises to prevent her present maritime supremacy from passing from her hands.

And of underwriters, because they are merely the agents of the merchants, and their interests are consequently identical; and because foreign competition, although at present not seriously felt, will inevitably become injurious to them, if the present necessary augmentation of their rates continues. And this must inevitably be the case if the fraudulent losses, which are the principal cause of this increase, are not prevented by the introduction of the proposed reforms.

FIRE INSURANCE IN LONDON.

At the annual meeting of the shareholders of the Royal Insurance Company, Liverpool, it was stated that a meeting of all the officers engaged in fire insurance in London had recently been held, consequent on the late great fire, at which it was agreed to advance the rate of premium on commercial insurance to a considerable extent. Subsequent reflection, however, had shown that a modification of the proposed rise would be sufficient; and Mr. Dove, the manager of the Royal Company, was of opinion that these modified rates would be found sufficient to meet all contingencies. He proceeded to say, that within the last seventeen years 580 new insurance offices, of all kinds, had been projected. Of these, 233 had ceased to exist in the same period, 11 had amalgamated with other companies, 134 had transferred their business, and 42 were winding up their affairs in chancery. Of the whole number, 95 fire offices had discontinued business. Within the last seventeen years 48 fire offices had been established. Of these, only 12 survive, 36 having discontinued business; and, in all, there are only 52 fire offices now doing business.

THE HIDES OF THE RIVER PLATA.

From "Japan, the Amoor and the Pacific. By Henry Arthur Tilley."

They were that day killing mares, more than five hundred of which pretty creatures were penned up in a corral. These corrals communicate one with another, a portcullis door being between each two. The last is in the shape of a pear, strongly boarded in, and surrounded by a platform. In the narrow end is a truck, which moves from it on iron rails, up and down a long shed. A strong bar of wood crosses the opening where the truck fits into the narrow end of the corral, and on this bar is a block through which the lasso runs, having one end fastened to the saddles of two Gauchos, while the noose remains in the hands of the Matador on the platform. When all is ready the Gauchos ride into the farther corral, drive the animals into the pear-shaped one, and the portcullis is dropped. The Matador whirls his lasso, sometimes over the heads of three or four mares at once, gives a signal to the mounted Gauchos, who spur their horses, and the mares are dragged on to the moving platform, with their heads against the bar. The Matador then strikes them on the head with a heavy iron hammer, the truck moves up the shed, and another mounted Gaucho, with a rope, drags them off the truck on either side of the tram-road, when other men are ready to skin and cut them up.

Oxen.—The same mode is adopted with oxen, only they are killed by the stab of a knife in the neck, which divides the spinal marrow. The first stab is generally sufficient; the animal ceases to feel instantaneously. The only suffering for the poor beasts is being kept long in the corrals without food and water, sometimes for two or three days. Barbarous as it seems to a European to see horses thus slaughtered for their skins, it is a painful necessity. The Gaucho will never ride on a mare, and if a stranger were to venture to do so he would be hooted and jeered by every urchin he met. The Gaucho is far from being like the Arab, who, it is known, rides only mares, and treats them a little more kindly than human beings. But the Gaucho will not only not ride mares, but treats the horses he does ride in a most barbarous manner; his spurs have points an inch in length, and on a journey these are applied to the blood-stained sides of the beast till he drops exhausted. What does that matter to the rider? He easily finds another; in fact, in the country they have hardly any value at all.

The rotting carcase or the skeleton of the horse by the wayside is a usual sight, even in the vicinity of the city of Buenos Ayres. Among the five hundred mares above-mentioned three were saved from the fate of the others by an English gentleman, who had lately brought with him from England three fine horses, and was about to try to improve the breed. For these three mares he only paid sixteen shillings each. The five hundred mares were killed and disposed of in about six hours.

Slaughtering.—In many establishments as many as eight hundred horses or oxen are slaughtered every day, and that nearly throughout

the year. In winter only, when the animals are not fat, is there a little relaxation. In the long shed above-mentioned the work of dismembering the animals is going on, and the expertness with which it is performed may be judged of by the fact, that five minutes hardly elapse from the time the ox leaves the corral before it is already cut up and salted. The men employed in this work are Basques, and often children with faces like angels are among them deep in blood, and revelling in their disgusting work. When the hide, the principal object of value, is removed, the flesh is cut up in lumps off the carcase, and removed to other hands, which slice it and throw it in brine, from which it passes to still other hands, which pack it in stacks, with layers of salt between. The flesh is turned every day for a few days, until it is dried by the air, and in that state forms the *carne secco*, which is exported in vast quantities to Havana, the Brazils, Chili, Peru and the African coasts.

Salting.—The hides are salted in the same manner, the superfluous brine running from the meat to the reservoir which contains them. Most of the salt used is brought from Cadiz. The bones undergo a different treatment. Those containing marrow are subjected to the action of steam, and the fat thus procured is likewise largely exported to the same places as the meat, besides being much used as butter by the natives, who are excessively fond of it. The rest of the bones, entrails and all that contains fat are steamed in another vat for tallow. The tongues are salted and consumed at home. The sinews, horsehair, &c., are also utilized, but still there is an enormous waste, for everything is performed in a very rough manner, on account of the high price of labor. Formerly only the hides were taken, and the rest left to perish on the spot. The mares are killed for their hides and hair alone. The flesh is useless, and is either burnt or thrown away.

The proprietor pointed out to me a plot of ground which he had formerly caused to be excavated to raise the ground of his premises, and the holes had been entirely filled up with mares' flesh. Most of the men employed keep huge and disgusting swine, which they fatten on the flesh and blood thus obtained without stint. Thousands of sea-gulls whiten the air and the ground, revelling on the disgusting remains. The small quantity of fat procured from the flesh and bones of the mares contains but little stearine or hard fat.

Refuse.—The refuse is strained from it by hanging it in long bags, through which a clear though dark-colored oil drips out. This is chiefly used for burning in lamps. The furnaces are fed entirely with flesh, bones and refuse, and the stench which is produced from the reeking blood, the ammoniacal fumes from the scorching bones and other substances, are quite enough to sicken the strongest stomach. The residue or bone-ash has lately become a valuable export to Europe, where it is used as manure. Soap and candles are also made in these factories, for home consumption.

Statistics.—In the three *Partidos* of the province of Buenos Ayres alone, there were, according to the returns of 1858, 3,875,742 horses, 8,672,675 oxen and 1,385,280 sheep. In the year 1838 the number of horned cattle did not exceed four millions; but since the pampas south of the Salado has been cleared of Indians, and the country in general become more settled, the above enormous increase has taken place. The same with the sheep, the wool of which was formerly so coarse that

it was only fit for carpets; whereas, since the improvement of the breed by a cross with fine-woolled sheep, it is largely exported for finer manufactures. The exportation for 1858 consisted of 969,604 dry and 318,304 salted ox-hides, 68,874 dry and 120,757 salted horse-hides, wool to the amount of 37,423 fardos, tallow, 240,362 cwt., besides horns, oil, bones and hair. The number of ships in which these were exported was 404.

THE OIL-SEEDS OF COMMERCE.

I. Linseed. II. Rape Seed. III. Ground Nut. IV. Cotton-Seed Oil. V. Dodder Seeds, Sunflower Seed, Cress Seed, Niger Seed, Ramtil, Radish Seed, Safflower Seed.

The consumption of oil in the United States has increased much more rapidly than the supply, and this, indeed, is true in all parts of the world. The oil wells, now being dug in many parts of our country, and producing such extraordinary results, may, for a time, relieve this want, and oils may remain at present prices, which are materially greater than those of twenty years ago.

We perceive, by the following article from the London *Farmers' Magazine*, that the subject of oils is attracting much attention in Europe:

Great as has been the extension of commerce and the progress of agricultural supplies, within the last few years, they are yet far from commensurate to the wants of Europe. It is, therefore, a wise provision that new discoveries arise, either out of the progress of science or the extension of foreign agriculture, to meet the increased demands. When the oils yielded by the whale fisheries declined, and, by their enhanced price, became expensive and inadequate to the wants of the consumer, increased attention was given to the production and manufacture of vegetable oils, and enormous quantities of oil-seeds, for crushing, from Europe and the East, and solid oils from Africa, were obtained. Even these, however, large as have been the imports of late, were insufficient to meet the progressive demand; and now additional supplies of rosin oil and mineral oils are coming forward, obtained either from coal or from asphalte and petroleum. The mineral oil springs in some of the States of America have turned out complete fortunes to the owners of the land, so cheap and abundant is the spontaneous supply from the wells sunk, and so easily is it purified. The vegetable oils, however, provide, and will long continue to do so, the bulk of the consumption.

The importation of the oil-seeds and oil-cake is a matter in which our readers necessarily take an interest, and therefore we may with propriety draw attention to the growing trade. Four years ago, when writing on this subject, we gave the statistics of the imports of seed and cake for a series of years; but these, by comparison now, look exceedingly trivial. In 1855 our imports of linseed were but 757,000 qrs., and of rape seed 162,352 qrs. Last year the imports were 1,255,000 qrs. of linseed, and about 300,000 qrs. of rape seed. So with oil-cake: the foreign imports, which in 1855 were but 80,659 tons, rose in 1860 to upwards of 100,000 tons.

Besides the two principal oil-seeds already named, we imported in 1859 about 183,000 qrs. of poppy, sesame, sursee and unenumerated oil-seeds. The specific returns of imports of these for last year are not yet published by the Board of Trade.

While the consumption of oil and oil-seeds was so much larger than usual last year, the stocks held are exceedingly small, and prices high. The manufacture of linseed oil in the United Kingdom, in 1860, was estimated at 65,000 tons, of which 33,700 tons were exported. The home production of oil-cake was also considerably in excess of former years. The stock of rape seed held was only about 18,000 qrs. at the commencement of this year, while of poppy and Niger seeds there were none on hand. Rape and seed oils, we are told, continue to sustain the same prominent position in our markets they have done for years past, and, independent of a large home make, 9,500 tons were imported into the kingdom last year.

A new kind of grease, made from rape oil, is now manufactured at Leipzic. The mass of grease or fat is quite pure, without taste or smell, and, according to medical certificates, contains nothing in the least injurious to health. In cookery it answers fully the purposes of butter, with the advantage, that, instead of the usual quantity of butter, one-third in quantity of this rape seed grease will suffice. The butter sold in London is bad enough, in all conscience; and we therefore trust that, for edible purposes, the rape grease may be kept by our German friends.

The ground nut, as it is popularly termed, the subterraneous fruit of the *arachis hypogœa*, is now cultivated very extensively as an oil-seed, especially at the Gold Coast, Gambia and Sierra Leone, on the West Coast of Africa. England imported, in 1859, 1,124 tons from the Gambia, 1,116 tons from Sierra Leone, and 147 tons from the Gold Coast. But large quantities are sent direct thence to France. Thus, in 1857, 13,554 tons of ground nuts were exported, of which 11,300 tons went to France and 1,300 to the United States. From Sierra Leone, 243,123 bushels were sent away, of which 206,503 went to France. The French imports from their own African possessions are also considerable; and it is stated that from 70,000 to 80,000 tons of ground nuts are annually received, chiefly at Marseilles.

In the Southern States of America its culture is much attended to, and there, and in parts of the West Indies, it is called pindar and peanut. In Brazil it is known under the name of mindoubi. In Natal and the Cape, as well as in the Indian Presidencies, the ground nut is now extensively grown; and in Spain and Algeria it is found to rank among the more advantageous objects of field cultivation. The price has of late been steady in our market for them, at £16 10s. per ton. The prepared oil, expressed from the seed or kernel, is of the finest quality, and fit for some of the most delicate purposes to which oil is put. Under the name of gingelly and teel, quantities of sesamum seed are imported from India and Egypt, and occasionally from other quarters. The small seeds are of all colors, varying from white to black. When carefully pressed, sesame oil is quite equal to the best olive. On the coast of Africa, and in some parts of the West Indies, sesame is called bennie seed.

Cotton-seed oil is now a large article of commerce, its seed being abundant, and the difficulties of removing the husk having been got

over. In cotton seed the oil is in smaller proportion, and the albuminous compounds larger than even in the best linseed cake.

There are other seeds, of less commercial importance, which are occasionally used to obtain oil from, among which may be enumerated pumpkin, melon and cucumber seed in India, and also under the name of agusi in Western Africa; dodder seeds, or gold of pleasure, (*camelina saliva,*) in the South of Europe and Canada; sunflower seed, cress seed, Niger seed, the small black seed of *guizotea oleifera*, called "ramtil" in India; radish seed and safflower seed; (*carthamus tinctorious;*) the oil of this makes excellent soap. Mustard seed is also pressed for oil.

We have confined our remarks entirely to the oil-seeds properly so called, distinct from the oils obtained from nuts and other vegetable sources, which furnish so large a proportion of the supplies, as the palm, cocoanut, olive, bassias, vegetable tallow and wax, which can scarcely be looked upon, in an agricultural point of view, as objects of agriculture, although they are of high importance, both to the producer of the oil, the merchant and the manufacturer.

Professor ANDERSON well observed, some time ago, that the introduction of new oil-seeds into commerce is a matter which very much depends upon the farmer; for, in the more familiar seeds, such as linseed and rape, the value of the cake often exceeds half that of the seed, and the price obtainable for it is a matter of the utmost moment to the manufacturer, who cannot afford to use a seed unless he can sell the cake to the farmer. He must be guided also by the proportion of oil the seed will yield in the press, and hence a knowledge of the quantity of that substance contained in them is of importance to him. A knowledge of the composition of these oil-seeds is important also to the farmer, because it is quite possible that some of them may be sufficiently low-priced to permit them to compete advantageously with linseed, which is occasionally used, more particularly for feeding calves, although its high price necessarily restricts its employment.

We may, hereafter, touch upon the composition and comparative feeding properties of the oil-cakes obtained from many of these seeds, whether home-made or imported.

TRADE WITH THE WEST COAST OF AFRICA.

LATE London papers contain a despatch from the British consul at Lagos, and a copy of a treaty of commerce, signed by the king and chiefs of Porto Novo, dated July 2d, authorizing British subjects to erect factories for collecting palm oil and other produce of the country. Other privileges are conceded in fulfilment of the treaty; a payment of two heads of cowries for every pound of ivory exported from Porto Novo. A similar treaty was also concluded with the chiefs of Badagry, the traders to pay one and a half head cowries on every 150 gallons of oil, and two strings of cowries on every pound of ivory exported from Badagry; the payment of one head per thirty gallons hitherto charged on palm oil coming from Porto Novo, and all other charges and imposts on produce, to cease.

THE SEAL FISHERY OF LABRADOR.

From a recent article in *Harper's Magazine*, entitled "Three Months in Labrador," we gather the following information respecting one of the most important industrial pursuits of the North country:

The seal fishery of Labrador is valued at $1,500,000 per annum, and is wholly prosecuted by Newfoundland vessels, with the exception of perhaps a dozen that sail from Canada and other Provinces. The hunting ground lies between the 49th and 52d parallels of latitude, and the season of catching extends from March to May, inclusive. The average fare of successful vessels is two thousand seals, though as many as eight thousand have been taken; but of upward of four hundred vessels that yearly engage in sealing not more than sixty make remunerative voyages, and many suffer heavy losses. Hence the business is altogether a lottery. Nevertheless, the chances of large gains are so seductive that sealers' berths, in vessels "up for the ice," command a premium of from $8 to $20. The men so engaged obtain their outfit (which includes clothing, guns, ammunition, &c.) on credit, the cost of which is deducted from their earnings at the end of their voyage; and they not unfrequently find a balance of $125 in their favor at the close of the season. Yet they are fortunate if, after their accounts are squared, they do not find themselves in debt to the vessel, or at least with empty pockets. The expense of the outfit is borne by the owners of the vessel. The captain receives no wages, but is allowed a tare of ten cents on every seal caught. When this is deducted, one-half fare is divided among the crew, and the other half falls to the owners. The average price per seal is $3 50. Consequently, a fare of two thousand seals, worth $7,000, yields to the owners and crew $3,325 each, and to the captain $350.

Sealing vessels are sheathed with iron and extra planked about the bows to protect them from the ice. On reaching the ground they are warped into channels cut through the ice, where they lie snugly moored until warm weather breaks it up. Then the sealers, singly and in small parties, each man armed with a heavy iron-spiked bat, and muffled to his eyes in furs, go forth in quest of victims. These lie quietly sunning themselves near their breathing holes, often a hundred together, uttering doleful cries and frog-like croaks. Upon some hummock a sentinel is ever on the alert to warn of approaching danger. But the hunters, creeping stealthily, and taking advantage of the wind and inequalities of surface, rush upon them at the first alarm, dealing death-blows right and left among the affrighted herd, who wriggle hurriedly over the ice, and tumble floundering into their holes. The old seals generally escape, as their movements are wonderfully quick; but many of the young are killed. These are now dexterously "sculped," stripped of their blubber and pelts, which come off entire; the bloody carcases are left to glut the starveling bears and arctic foxes, and the pelts rolled up and dragged away to the vessel. After the ice breaks up the seals are shot from boats in open water, where they are found disporting.

There are various kinds of seals, among which are the harbor, ranger, jar, hood, doter, bedlamer, harpe, blue and square flipper; differing as

greatly in size and physiognomy as members of the human family. There are canine and feline looking seals; seals with round smooth heads cropped like a prize-fighter's, and seals with patriarchal beards and long flowing locks; meek pensive-looking seals, and seals fierce and long tusked; little seals three feet long, and monsters upwards of eight feet in length, weighing a thousand pounds. Selah! The hood seal when attacked throws up a thick bullet-proof hood or shield before its face, and whichever way a gun is presented this defence is always opposed, the animal moving dexterously from side to side with every movement of his assailant. An effective wound must be given directly under the ear, and it requires an expert marksman to hit him there. The harpe is most esteemed, and commands a market price of $7 to $8. He is a first-class pugilist, and always shows fight, rising on his hind flippers, dodging the bat skilfully, and often seizing it from his assailant's hand. He is very tenacious of life, and, when worsted, frequently feigns death. At such times the unsuspecting sealer, stooping over to "sculp" him, is liable to serious injury. Sometimes they have been completely disembowelled.

Seals whelp in March, and suckle their young. They are in good condition at all seasons, but are seldom taken after July, as they migrate to more northern regions, returning in December. In early summer they are caught in strong, large meshed nets. They constitute an important article of food to the settlers and Esquimaux, and to the latter are indispensable. The blubber is exceedingly fat, and being cut into strips and thrown into vats, a large quantity of oil is obtained by natural drainage. The residue is tried out by heat. It is extensively used for machinery, both in Europe and the United States, but is sold under a different name. Its value is about fifty cents per gallon.

The Seals of Spitzbergen.—A full-sized Spitzbergen seal, in good condition, is about nine and a half or ten feet long, by six or six and a half feet in circumference, and weighs six hundred pounds or upwards. The skin and fat amount to about one-half the total weight. The blubber lies in one layer of two or three inches thick, underneath the skin, and yields about one-half of its own weight of fine oil. The value of a seal, of course, varies with the state of the oil market all over the world; but, at the time of which I write, oil being unusually cheap, they only averaged five or six dollars apiece; but still, the fact of the animals being of some use contributed to render the chase of them much more exciting, as nothing can be more distasteful or unsatisfactory to the feelings of a true sportsman than taking the life of any thing which is to be of no use when dead.

From what I have heard, I am inclined to suspect that a good many of the shipwrecks which happen in Spitzbergen are caused wilfully, in order to defraud the insurance offices. These vessels are principally insured in Hamburg, and, I believe, the rate of insurance is as high as seven per cent.; although one would think that even that was little enough for the unavoidable risks of such a dangerous voyage, without taking into consideration the impunity with which such nefarious proceedings as I have alluded to may be committed in those distant waters.—Lamont's "*Seasons with the Sea-Horses.*"

THE COTTON CULTURE IN CHINA.

We find an extract from Fortune's work on China, giving an interesting account of the mode of growing cotton in that extensive empire. That work states that the word cotton is derived from *Kho-ten*, the name of the most western district of China, and it must have been cultivated there centuries before it was known to the western world. We have no means of learning how much cotton is produced there, but probably more than is now produced in India, as its immense population is supplied mostly from home manufacture.—*Editors of Merchants' Magazine.*

The Chinese or Nanking cotton-plant is the *Gossypium herbaceum* of botanists, and the "*Mie wha*" of the northern Chinese. It is a branching annual, growing from one to three or four feet in height, according to the richness of the soil, and flowering from August to October. The flowers are of a dingy yellow color, and, like the Hibiscus or Malva, which belong to the same tribe, remain expanded only for a few hours, in which time they perform the part allotted to them by nature, and then shrivel up and soon decay. At this stage the seed-pod begins to swell rapidly, and, when ripe, the outer coating bursts and exposes the pure white cotton in which the seeds lie imbedded.

The yellow cotton, from which the beautiful Nanking cloth is manufactured, is called "*Tze mie wha*" by the Chinese, and differs but slightly in its structure and general appearance from the kind just noticed. I have often compared them in the cotton fields where they were growing, and although the yellow variety has a more stunted habit than the other, it has no characters which constitute a distinct species. It is merely an accidental variety, and although its seeds may generally produce the same kind, they doubtless frequently yield the white variety and *vice versa*. Hence, specimens of the yellow cotton are frequently found growing amongst the white in the immediate vicinity of Shanghae; and again, a few miles northward, in fields near the city of *Poushun*, on the banks of the Yang-tze-kiang, where the yellow cotton abounds, I have often gathered specimens of the white variety.

The Nanking cotton is chiefly cultivated in the level ground around Shanghae, where it forms the staple summer production of the country. The district, which is part of the great plain of the Yang-tze-kiang, although flat, is yet several feet above the level of the water in the rivers and canals, and is consequently much better fitted for cotton cultivation than those flat rice-districts in various parts of the country—such, for example, as the plain of Ningpo—where the ground is either wet and marshy, or liable at times to be completely overflowed. Some fields in this district are, of course, low and marshy, and these are cultivated with rice instead of cotton, and regularly flooded by the water-wheel during the period of growth. Although the cotton land is generally flat, so much so, indeed, that no hills can be seen from the tops of the houses in the city of Shanghae, it has, nevertheless, a pleasing and undulating appearance, and, taken as a whole, it is perhaps the most fertile and agricultural district in the world. The soil is a strong rich loam, capable of yielding immense crops year after year, although it receives but a small portion of manure.

The manure applied to the cotton lands of the Chinese is doubtless peculiarly well fitted for this kind of crop. It is obtained from the canals, ponds and ditches which intersect the country in every direction, and consists of mud which has been formed partly by the decay of long grass, reeds and succulent water-plants, and partly by the surface soil which has been washed down from the higher ground by the heavy rains. Every agricultural operation in China seems to be done with the greatest regularity, at certain stated times, which experience has proved the best; and in nothing is this more apparent than in the manuring of the cotton lands. Early in April the agricultural laborers all over the country are seen busily employed in cleaning these ponds and ditches. The water is first of all partly drawn off and then the mud is thrown up on the adjoining land to dry, where it remains for a few days until all the superfluous water is drained out of it, and is then conveyed away and spread over the cotton fields. Previous to this the land has been prepared for its reception, having been either plowed up with the small buffalo plow in common use in the country, and then broken and pulverized by the three-pronged hoe. In those instances where the farms are small and cannot boast of a buffalo and plow, it is loosened and broken up entirely by manual labor. When the mud is first spread over the land, it is, of course, hard or cloggy, but the first showers soon mix it with the surface soil, and the whole becomes pulverized, and it is then ready for the reception of the cotton seed. Road-scrapings and burnt rubbish are saved up with care, and used for the same purpose and in the same manner.

A considerable portion of the cotton lands either lie fallow during the winter months, or are planted with those crops which are ready for gathering prior to the sowing of the cotton seed. Frequently, however, two crops are found growing in the field at the same time. Wheat, for example, which is a winter crop, is reaped in the Shanghae district generally about the end of May, while the proper time for putting in the cotton seed is the beginning of that month or the end of April. In order, therefore, to have cotton on the wheat lands, the Chinese sow its seeds at the usual time amongst the wheat, and when the latter is reaped, the former is several inches above ground, and ready to grow with vigor when it is more fully exposed to the influence of sun and air. The Shanghae season, that is, from the late spring frosts to those in autumn, is barely long enough for the production and ripening of the cotton, as it is easily injured by frosts; and the Chinese farmer is thus obliged, in in order to gain time and obtain two crops from his ground in one year, to sow its seeds before the winter crop is ready to be removed from the ground. When it is possible to have the first crop entirely removed before the cotton is sown, it is much preferred, as the land can then be well worked and properly manured, neither of which can otherwise be done. The method of sowing one crop before the preceding one is ripe and removed from the land is very common in this part of the country; and even in autumn, before the cotton stalks are taken out of the ground, other seeds are frequently seen germinating and ready to take the place of the more tender crop.

In the end of April and beginning of May—the land having been prepared in the manner just described—the cotton seeds are carried in baskets to the fields, and the sowing commences. They are generally

sown broadcast, that is, scattered regularly over the surface of the ground, and then the laborers go over the whole surface with their feet and tread them carefully in. This not only imbeds the seeds, but also acts like a roller to break and pulverize the soil. Germination soon commences, the seeds rooting first in the manure which had been scattered over the surface of the land. In some cases, the seed, instead of being sown broadcast, is sown in drills or patches, but this mode is less common than the other. These patches are often manured with bruised oil-cake, which is the remains of the cotton seed after its oil has been extracted. The rains, which always fall copiously at the change of the monsoon, which takes place at this season of the year, warm and moisten the earth, and the seeds swell, and vegetation progresses with wonderful rapidity. Many of the operations in Chinese agriculture are regulated by the change of the monsoon. The farmer knows from experience that when the winds, which have been blowing from the north and east for the last seven months, change to the south and west, the atmosphere will be highly charged with electric fluid, and the clouds will daily rain and refresh his crops.

The cotton fields are carefully tended during the summer months. The plants are thinned where they have been sown too thickly, the earth is loosened amongst the roots, and the ground hoed and kept free from weeds. If the season is favorable, immense crops are obtained, owing to the fertility of the soil; but if the weather happens to be unusually dry from June to August, the crop receives a check which it never entirely recovers, even although the ground after that period should be moistened by frequent showers. 1845 was a season of this kind, and the crop was a very deficient one compared with that of the previous year. The spring was highly favorable, and the plants looked well up to the month of June, when the dry weather set in, and gave them a check which they never recovered. Abundance of rain fell later in the season, but it was then too late, and only caused the plants to grow tall and run to leaf, without producing those secretions which ultimately go to the formation of flowers and seed.

The cotton plant produces its flowers in succession from August to the end of October, but sometimes, when the autumn is mild, blooms are produced even up to November, when the cold nights generally nip the buds, and prevent them from forming seed. In the autumn of 1844 this happened on the night of the 28th of October, when the thermometer sank to the freezing point, and then ice was found on the sides of the canals and ponds.

As the pods are bursting every day, it is necessary to have them gathered with great regularity, otherwise they fall upon the ground and the cotton gets dirty, which, of course, reduces its value in the market. Little bands of the Chinese are now seen in the afternoon in every field, gathering the ripe cotton, and carrying it home to the houses of the farmers. As the farms are generally small, they are worked almost entirely by the farmer and his family, consisting sometimes of three or even four generations, including the old gray-haired grandfather or great-grandfather, who has seen the crops of fourscore years gathered into his barns. Every member of these family groups has a certain degree of interest in his employment; the harvest is their own, and the more productive it is, the greater number of comforts they will be able to

afford. Of course, there are many cotton farms of larger size, where laborers are employed in addition to the farmer's family, but by far the greater number are small, and worked in the way I have just described. It is no unusual sight to see the family goats, too, doing their share of the work. Several of these animals are kept on almost every farm, where they are, of course, great favorites with the children, and often follow them to the cotton fields. Although the children, with their little hands, can gather the cotton as well as their elders, they are not strong enough to carry it about with them, and it is amusing to see their favorites, the goats, with bags slung across their backs, receiving the deposits of cotton, and bearing it home to the houses, evidently aware that they too are working for the general good.

However fine the crop may be, the Chinese are never sure of it until it is actually gathered in. Much depends upon a dry autumn, for, if the weather is wet after the pods begin to burst, they drop amongst the muddy soil, and are consequently much injured, if not completely destroyed. When the cotton reaches the farmyards, it is daily spread out on hurdles raised about four feet from the ground, and fully exposed to the sun. As the object is to get rid of all the moisture, it is, of course, only put out in fine weather, and is always taken into the house or barn in the evening. When perfectly dry, the process of separating it from the seeds commences. This is done by the well-known wheel with two rollers, which, when turned round, draws or sucks in the cotton, and rejects the seeds. It is a simple and beautiful contrivance, and answers well the end for which it is designed. The cotton is now sent to market, and a portion of the seeds are reserved for the next year's crop.

Early in the fine autumnal mornings the roads leading into Shanghae are crowded with bands of coolies from the cotton farms, each with his bamboo across his shoulders, and a large sack of cotton swung from each end. With these they hurry into the town, for the purpose of disposing of them to the merchants, who have numerous warehouses from which they send the cotton to the other provinces of the empire. These coolies, or small farmers—for many of them bring their own produce to market themselves—are very independent in their dealings. Having reached the first warehouse, the cotton is exposed to the view of the merchant, who is asked what price he intends to give for that particular quality; and should the sum offered be below the owner's expectations, he immediately shoulders his load and walks away to another merchant. At this season it is almost impossible to get along the streets near the sides of the river where the cotton warehouses are, owing to the large quantities of this commodity which are daily brought in from the country. It is bought up by the large cotton merchants, who empty it out in their warehouses, and then repack it in a neat and compact manner before it is conveyed on board the junks.

Before the cotton is converted into thread for the purpose of weaving it is cleaned and freed from knots by the well-known process common in our possessions in India. This is done by an elastic bow, the string of which, being passed under a portion of the cotton placed on a table, throws it into the air by the vibration which is kept up by the workman, and separates the fiber without at all breaking or injuring it. At the same time the wind, caused by the sudden vibrations, carries off the dust and other impurities. After this process the Chinese cotton is particu-

larly pure and soft, and is considered by good judges not to be surpassed by any in the world. It is much superior to that imported to China from Hindostan, and always commands a higher price in the Chinese market.

Every small farmer or cottage reserves a portion of the produce of his fields for the wants of his own family. This the female members clean, spin and weave at home. In every cottage throughout this district the traveller meets with the spinning-wheel and the small hand-loom, which used to be common in our own country in days of yore, but which have now given way to machinery. These looms are plied by the wives and daughters, who are sometimes assisted by the old men or young boys, who are unfit for the field. Where the families are numerous and industrious, a much greater quantity of cloth is woven than is required for their own wants, and in this case the surplus is taken to Shanghae and the adjacent towns for sale. A sort of market is held every morning at one of the gates of the city, where these people assemble and dispose of their little bundles of cotton cloth. Money is in this manner realized for the purchase of tea and other necessaries, which are not produced by the farms in this particular district.

When the last crops are gathered from the cotton fields, the stalks are carried home for fuel. Thus every part of it is turned to account; the cotton itself clothes them, and affords them the means of supplying themselves with all the necessaries of life; the surplus seeds are converted into oil; the stalks boil their frugal meals, and the ashes even—the remains of all—are strewed over their fields for the purpose of manure. But even before this takes place, the system I have already noticed—of sowing and planting fresh crops before the removal of those which occupy the land—is already in progress. Clover, beans and other vegetables are frequently above ground in the cotton fields before the stalks of the latter are removed. Thus the Chinese in the northern provinces lengthen by every means in their power the period of growth, and gain as much as they possibly can from the fertility of their land. The reader must bear in mind, however, that the soil in this district is a rich deep loam, which is capable of yielding many crops in succession without the aid of a particle of manure. Nature has showered her bounties on the inhabitants of the Chinese empire with no sparing hand; the soil is not only the most fertile in China, but the climate is capable of rearing and bringing to perfection many of the productions of the tropics as well as the whole of those found in all the temperate regions of the globe.—FORTUNE'S *Tea Districts of China*, vol. 1, chap. xii.

THE MANCHESTER COTTON SUPPLY ASSOCIATION.

Annual Report for 1861.

The fourth annual meeting of the Cotton Supply Association was held in the Town Hall, Manchester, on Tuesday, the 11th June. John Cheetham, Esq., President of the Association, occupied the chair. Among the gentlemen present were Edmund Ashworth, Esq., Vice-President; Malcolm Ross, Esq., Treasurer; Hugh Mason, Esq.; John Platt, Esq., Chairman of the Manchester Cotton Company; Henry Ashworth, Esq.; Thomas Emmott, Esq.; William Wanklyn, Esq.; Thomas Clegg, Esq.; Wright Turner, Esq.; Josiah Radcliffe, Esq.; William Armitage, Esq.; John Cheetham, Jun., Esq.; Dr. Forbes, of India; Dr. Beke, the Abyssinian traveller; Henry Jordan, Esq., Commissioner from the Government of Queensland, Australia; Rev. Mr. Townsend, from Abbeokuta, Africa; Rev. James Stewart; Rev. W. Arthur; A. Binyon, Esq.; J. M. Dunlop, Esq.; Edmund Howarth, Esq.; E. C. Howard, Esq.; Charles Schuster, Esq.; Dr. Rassaerts, French Consul; R. A. Barlow, Esq.; W. Hayman, Esq.; A. Ireland, Esq.; J. Garnett, Esq.; Joseph Leese, Esq.; J. Smith, Esq.; J. C. Ollerenshaw, Esq.; T. Heppell, Esq., Engineer to the Madras Railway; David Chadwick, Esq.; Mr. G. R. Haywood, Secretary, &c., &c.

Mr. G. R. Haywood, having read a portion of the report which had been previously circulated among the gentlemen present, the Chairman said:

Gentlemen: It is now four years since the association, whose claims we are this morning to advocate, appeared before the public of this town and neighborhood. The principle upon which that association was founded was, that it was unwise in a great manufacturing trade of this country, upon the continuance and extension of which so large an amount of population and of varied interests were concerned—it was most unwise that year after year this great trade should continue in almost total dependence upon one source of supply for its raw material. It was further said, in reference to that principle, that that great source of supply was connected with a mode of employing labor which could not (if we are believers in truth and righteousness) ultimately be continued, but might, at some moment unexpected to us all—it was fondly hoped to be a distant period then—fail and break down, leaving us in the direst emergency. I certainly, for one, little thought that within four years from that time these two objects on which we formed this association would combine together to illustrate the soundness of our principle and the wisdom of our project. We have had, after the largest crop of cotton which America ever produced, as sudden a collapse, larger in extent and amount than ever was similarly witnessed; and to that simple fact alone you have mainly owing the very considerable advance which has taken place in the price of the raw material. But we have, in addition, the totally unexpected and sudden spectacle of that country, arrayed into two hostile parties, and we look on with amazement, with regret and with terror, at the probable results which may flow

from this most unfortunate struggle. I know I speak your own sentiments when I say that every Englishman deeply regrets this struggle has taken place. We may wholly and entirely abominate the continuance of slavery in one section of that country, but we at the same time cannot but deeply regret its citizens should meet in hostile array, and we should see the unfortunate spectacle which that great republic now presents.

I think the principles upon which we founded this association are not stronger to-day than they were at first, though probably they are more extensively recognised. It is, however, a matter of regret that in the district which is more especially interested in discussing this question of obtaining a wider area for the supply of the raw material, we have so little of the interest and excitement found in other parts of the country. I have lately, with some other members of the Council, been on a deputation to London, and we found in every circle—whether the high circles of members of parliament and the nobility, or amongst the different merchants in the city—the great and absorbing question asked, "What are you doing in Lancashire, and what is to be the result there of this impending crisis in America?" That being the case, I think you must admit the paragraph in the report which states that now at least the trade of this country ought to congratulate itself that this association has been formed, and is working so successfully, is based on most satisfactory evidence. Had you been called together unexpectedly in consequence of this great crisis in America, you would have been without experience on this question; you would have had no information such as that now presented to you; and, being without any safe guide, the result probably would have been that you would have had various schemes totally unsound in their principles and objects, and which would have brought you into much trouble and loss, without achieving any of the objects at which they attained.

But your position now is this: You are possessed of information from every part of the world where cotton can be cultivated, with the exception of one country—I allude to China. It may be, we cannot expect to have supplies of cotton from that country, because it is an opponent of ourselves in the Indian market; but as we are now opening up the interior of that country, it is thought desirable we should obtain some information on the subject, and our foreign secretary (Lord JOHN RUSSELL) has kindly offered to send out instructions to our ambassadors and consuls to make inquiries for our guidance. We are, therefore, in a position to show you what are the sources upon which you may rely in the emergency on which we are now entering. Let us, however, recognise, as we ought to do, the superior advantages which the American planter has over any other individual in the growth of cotton. I am afraid we too often neglect this. We see men lightly sitting down to write an article, and saying cotton can be grown in this country and the other, without seeing the formidable obstacles which are in the way.

What is the position of the American planter? In the first place, he has the pre-eminent advantage of being an Anglo-Saxon, endowed with all the enterprise, skill and energy connected with that character. He is planted in a country whose soil and climate are peculiarly adapted to the culture of cotton—a culture which extends from the very lowest to the very finest quality. He is, from his intelligence and position, ade-

quately acquainted with the wants of the consumer; he knows as well as we do what we want. He has the advantage of a country covered with roads, railways and water navigation; he is able, with the greatest possible economy, to convey his produce to the port, and when he gets it there he has capital at hand to assist him in sending it on a short and speedy voyage to the great markets of the world. Now this is the man we are called to contend with; and what are the places in the world in a condition to contend with this individual?

It does so happen that from the information which your association possesses, we find that there are only two spots on the globe that possess the very first requisite for cotton cultivation, and that is labor. You have only the west coast of Africa, and the great continent of India, in which you have labor to employ. Every other country possessing soil and climate to grow a quality of cotton equal, and in some respects superior to that which America produces, has to contend with the want of labor. Take the case, first, of our own West India colonies. There is no doubt you have there climate and soil for the production of a most valuable quality of cotton; and, looking back forty or thirty years ago, a very considerable supply was sent from those islands to this country. But since the abolition of slavery there has been a want of labor.

Mr. Cross.—Before the abolition of slavery.

The Chairman.—Well, perhaps it was; but since the abolition of slavery there has been a want of labor, and I regret that our jealousy of again encouraging the traffic should have been carried to the extent of forbidding the planters a carefully guarded immigration of foreign labor to assist in the cultivation of the plantations. In addition to that, another and a more formidable difficulty presents itself in the fact that the culture of sugar and coffee are more advantageous to the planter than the culture of cotton; and, therefore, while I am glad to see any parties whatever directing their attention to these colonies, yet still I see, in the absence of labor, and in the presence of more highly remunerative articles of cultivation, too great difficulties to hope for any large supplies thence. The same argument applies to Natal. I have friends in that colony who give the best and safest information, and they say that capital and enterprise will be directed to the cultivation of sugar and coffee. We shall get small lots from thence, but we shall have nothing like a steady and abundant cultivation of cotton.

Crossing over to Australia, we have there a climate and soil—especially in the colony of Queensland—equal to the production of the finest and most useful qualities, and there are no other products to disturb the attention of the cultivator. I have great hopes, therefore, with the immigration of Indian and Chinese coolies, that in the course of time something would be done there, and a large cultivation carried on. We now come to South America. Forty years ago we were very largely dependent upon Brazil for the supply of a very valuable quality of cotton; but there the same element meets us as in the West Indian Islands. You find the cultivation of coffee and sugar more remunerative than that of cotton, and the consequence has been that Brazil, which at one period furnished us with 200,000 bales annually, now only returns 100,000 bales, and I expect the supply from that quarter will gradually become nearly extinct.

Chili and Peru also produce cotton. We have had a gentleman from Peru here stating that their climate and soil are well adapted to the

cultivation of cotton, and the small quantities which have come to us prove it. But they have no labor, and their government being opposed to the immigration of Chinese, they came to us to obtain our interest to procure the services of our own government to point out to theirs the advantages to be derived from bringing over the Chinese. Egypt is another cotton district. Within thirty years it has become a cotton country, growing a most valuable quality, and I believe is capable of a very considerable increase. But though you have labor, you have a government not alive to its own interest, and other difficulties of a kind which we are endeavoring to overcome.

We have decided that our commissioner shall proceed by way of Egypt to India, and, by the aid of our consul, show to the Pasha the great utility and prosperity that might result from his encouraging more largely the cultivation of cotton in his dominions. In Algiers, too, there is no question that you have a climate and soil adequate to the growth of very fine cotton. The French government has already been engaged in its cultivation, and some of the cotton grown there has been purchased by English spinners and found equal in quality to American. But, as I told a gentleman the other day in London, who said that they were getting up a joint-stock cotton company in Paris, they have no labor. The Arab is not a man who can be brought to that patient industry which such a cultivation requires; and the Emperor of the French, no doubt aware of this, and wishing to improve the cultivation of cotton, was most anxious to obtain that celebrated paragraph in the treaty with the Chinese which permits the free emigration of Chinese to other countries. Then we have Turkey. Some gentlemen in London are very anxious to turn their attention to the cultivation of cotton there. Your association has supplied seed and gins for the cultivation of cotton in Syria, and we have had cotton sent us equal to the best New-Orleans samples; but here again we are beset by the difficulties of misgovernment, and a total neglect of the precautions necessary to ensure the security of life and property, and thus it is unsafe in the present state of things for any Englishman to venture his person and capital in the undertaking.

It appears to me, then, that the energies of the trade at the present crisis should be chiefly directed to two places. The first I would allude to, where there is abundant labor, is the west coast of Africa, and a quality of cotton quite satisfactory, yet you are beset by a formidable difficulty. You are amongst a people rude, barbarous and uncivilized; you have hostile tribes frequently, as at the present moment, at deadly war with each other; and thus the efforts which my friend Mr. Clegg has made, and which do him so much credit, and the efforts which this association have endeavored to make, are at the present moment in a great degree arrested by this unfortunate hostility and warfare amongst the tribes there. Then, again, you have the climate on the west coast of Africa, which is so detrimental to Europeans. I was told by Mr. Clegg that he had lost either eleven or thirteen agents; and this association has lost the aid of three gentlemen to whom they had entrusted the carrying out of their views. Now, though I do hope to see in progress of time a considerable supply of cotton from Africa, I despair of its giving us any material assistance for some years to come.

India, then, must be our chief reliance. It is calculated that the present production of cotton there is not less than 6,000,000 bales annually.

The country, too, is under our own government, so that we have that advantage which we do not possess in many others, and it has, also, an abundance of free labor. We have no question of slavery to battle or grapple with, but at the same time there are most formidable difficulties there as compared with the position of the planter in America. In the first place, the cultivation is not in the hands of the Anglo-Saxon; there is no such man scarcely in the cotton districts as an Englishman. The cultivator is the ryot, a small farmer holding a few acres of land, and so poor that his seed has to be furnished by a banker, and when the crop arrives at maturity it is taken by this banker almost at his own price, which very seldom exceeds 1¼d. or 1½d. per pound. It is cleaned in a very imperfect way, and sold by the banker to a dealer. The dealer falsely mixes it and packs it for the purpose of increasing his profit. Then, again, it is transferred from him to another dealer, undergoing a similar operation. When it reaches the hands of the native dealer at Bombay, it is pressed in large presses and sold to the English merchant. There is, therefore, the absence of European superintendence; and scarcely any produce whatever of the soil of India arrives at any satisfactory degree of cultivation without European superintendence; while you have no roads to the seaboard, no water communication, no railways, although there is a probability that shortly some will be put to our use. These are the disadvantages under which you labor as compared with the American planter.

There is another serious obstacle, and that, strange to say, under our own government. It was the understood and never-deviating principle of the Board of Control that no land should ever be sold to a European. You have, further, the jealousy of the civil service against any intrusion on the part of the European trader, who was and is denounced as an interloper. It is not at all surprising that under these disadvantages the cotton which you get from India is the worst grown in the whole world, that it fetches at all times the lowest prices, and when we come to talk to a great number of consumers, and ask them to look to India for a supply of cotton, they smile with incredulity, and say, if you direct your sympathies to any other part of the globe, they may agree with you. Now we have, from the inquiries which we have made, ascertained the possibility not only of increasing the quantity of cotton exported from India (which to my mind is quite a secondary consideration,) but also of realizing the other object which we have in view, and that is, elevating the quality to the standard of American cotton; so that in the event of a failure there, you have another country on which to rely. That is the great object we have in hand; and unless that can be obtained, I should despair of India.

We are charged, however, with not giving a sufficiently remunerative price to the Indian ryot. This has been the old stock-song for the last twenty years with everybody—from the Indian secretary down to his most humble subordinate. Now, one would have thought that practical men of the world would have seen, in the quaint language of HUDIBRAS, "the value of a thing is what it will bring;" and if Indian cotton will not bring a fair price, it is because the planter does not grow that which the consumer wants. You know last year there was a very abundant crop of cotton in America—especially of the inferior qualities; that the prices were comparatively low; and that the very

lowest of the American cotton, when clean, is far more suitable to the wants of the English spinner than Indian cotton. The consequence was, whilst last year the Indian export of cotton to Great Britain was 600,000 bales, the consumption here only reached to some 173,000 bales; so that had not the Russian, Germans and Swedes come in to take this cotton away, you would have had more than 400,000 bales piled up in the warehouses of Liverpool, indicative of its unsuitableness to the great proportion of our own consumers.

And this is not the case with last year only; but since 1855 we have received into the ports of this country from India 2,974,000 bales, or an average annual import of 496,000 bales, while our average annual consumption during this time has only been 266,000 bales; so that you have had an excess of imports over consumption annually of 230,000 bales of Indian cotton during this period. This excess has been carried away to the Continent; and so I find, while our annual consumption for the last six years has been 266,000 bales of Indian cotton, that of the Continent has been 286,000 bales. India, however, is capable of producing a much larger quantity for exportation than 600,000 bales annually. The exports of cotton from Bombay in the first four months of the present year are double in amount of those in the corresponding period of last year; and if this is continued throughout the year, probably 1,200,000 bales may be shipped from thence. I think we may fairly calculate to receive in this country 900,000 or 1,000,000 bales from India during the year; and I am happy to say there is a much larger proportion of it good cotton than has ever been received before. The association is, therefore, turning its attention to India, but not to it exclusively. We are ready to aid every other country which seems prepared to take up the cultivation of cotton; and it is singular that in the fourth year of our existence our correspondence is increasing, our connections extending, and our labors increasing also.

We have already been enabled to devote the development of this superior cotton cultivation in India, into the hands of a limited cotton company, the chairman of the executive of which is my friend, Mr. JOHN PLATT, of Oldham, and I have no doubt there will be no want of energy in carrying out its operations. To facilitate these, it has been decided to send our secretary, Mr. HAYWOOD, to India, in the character of a commissioner, and Sir CHARLES WOOD has very kindly placed the services of Dr. FORBES—who, I believe, is on the platform at this moment—at our disposal, and who will accompany Mr. HAYWOOD on his mission. Their object will be to establish first at Dharwar, where the cultivation of New-Orleans seed is progressing, and afterwards in such other parts of India as may appear suitable, a number of English agents, probably those intimately acquainted with the habits of the natives and their language, to promote the cultivation of the higher classes of cotton. If we distribute samples of these seeds, and offer for their cultivation a much higher remuneration to the ryots, we are told they will be quite as alive to the workings of self-interest as any class of people. Your association have thought it necessary to bring under the notice of government the difficulties which will impede the operation of the Cotton Company in India, and a deputation accordingly went a few days ago to London.

We have drawn the attention of government to, and have petitioned both houses of parliament upon three points, one of which is, that if

Englishmen are to go into the interior of India, and be connected in any way with the soil, we want an alteration in the existing law of tenure. The soil of India is invested really in the hands of the goverment. It has been their policy, as I have stated, that no independent Englishman should ever be allowed to hold a fee simple in India. Well, we are trying to break that down. We find the old civilian notion still existing, but we are backed up by practical men who have resided in India, and it is gratifying to find men long acquainted with Indian habits and views strengthening us in the great work we are undertaking.

We ask, in the next place, that our agents shall be protected, in making advances to the natives, by a simple and effective law for the enforcement of contracts. At present there is not sufficient protection to property or security for advances to the ryot. But the government say—"We are considering that question; we will do all we can to aid you in that object." And Sir CHARLES WOOD has lately laid on the tables of the House of Commons a bill for improving the law courts of India, more especially having a view to the introduction in the interior of English barristers as magistrates. I believe that this, if carried out, will be of very great assistance to us. Then, we propose to government a practical object in our present emergency. There is a portion of Central India, called Berar, very little known to Europeans. It is a large and widely-extended cotton-growing district. The cotton is chiefly consumed in the interior, but small quantities occasionally go to Calcutta for shipment to China. The river Godavery flows through this district 600 miles to the sea. Its navigation is, however, impeded at several points by rocks, to remove which obstacles an outlay of £400,000 or £500,000 would be requisite. Were this effected, cotton might be brought from Berar to Coringa (the port of shipment) at a cost of one-eighth of a penny per pound. We have, therefore, pressed this subject upon the government, and our views have been supported by Sir CHARLES TREVELYAN, the late governor of Madras, and Sir WILLIAM DENISON, the present governor.

The great Peninsular Railway Company are constructing a line to Nagpore, in Berar, a distance of 560 miles from Bombay. By this line cotton may be laid down in Bombay at a cost of one-third of a penny per pound (for freight;) so that in two directions this part of Central India may be opened for the transmission of produce for export. Sir CHARLES WOOD, whilst concurring with us as to the advantages to be derived from the opening of the Godavery, feels himself committed to the completion of the railways now in progress in India, and has promised to use every effort for the completion of this Berar line within the next two years. But already we find this and other railways are giving considerable aid in the transport of cotton, and that the native dealers readily avail themselves of their use; and as they gradually approach completion, we may look for much greater facilities for the transmission of cotton from the interior. I will only add, in conclusion, that in all the departments of government with which we have been brought into connection, we have found the warmest interest existing as to the promotion of the objects of the association; and when assistance can be rendered, we may rely upon its being done.

THE COMMERCE AND NAVY OF BELGIUM.

I. The Flemings in the Ninth Century. II. Maritime Law of the Eleventh Century. III. Flax and Hemp Cultivation in the Twelfth Century. III. Trade of England, Scotland and Ireland with the Flemings.

We are indebted to the London *Athenæum*, of September, for a criticism on the work of Van Bruyssel, on the Commerce and Navy of Belgium. The writer says that for the last half-century history has dwelt chiefly on the efforts that have been made by European nations for the advancement of their material prosperity, commercial and industrial. Never before was so much activity displayed in furtherance of this object. Electricity and steam have given an impetus to the efforts of the people, and the result must be a revision of the laws of commerce and a reform of the tariff. The division of labor, which has only been applied hitherto to individuals, must from henceforth be made applicable to nations. But in order to understand what objects are more especially adapted for the purposes of trade and commerce, we ought first to acquaint ourselves with the past traffic and navigation of each nation.

This is what M. Van Bruyssel has attempted to do with regard to Belgium, from the time of Cæsar to the downfall of the Low Countries in 1830. He has shown how much a small population, gifted with perseverance and energy, may effect in a few centuries. He begins by describing the knowledge possessed by the Morini, Menapii and others on the coast, in working iron, making cloth, coloring wood, and in manufacturing different varieties of tissue. The inhabitants of these countries were also good sailors, and at a very early period established Belgium colonies in England. When the Romans came they found many of these colonies in Kent, Sussex, Surrey and elsewhere; the *Venta Belgarium*, which became the modern Winchester, was the centre and chief of these establishments. Mr. Wright, in his history, has shown that the Menapii went even to Ireland for commercial purposes at that remote period.

The conquest of Gaul by Cæsar put an end to this commercial activity, and it was not until long afterwards that the Belgians were again permitted to pursue their industrial occupations. The law prohibited the importation of certain products into Belgium, such as wine, oil and iron. The author here gives a detailed account of the different articles furnished by the Low Countries to Rome under the emperors.

At the decline of the Roman empire there was a long period during which commerce and literature were at a complete standstill in the north of Europe. Under Charlemagne new regulations gave a fresh impulse and vigor to trade. It was then that, for the first time, was established the uniformity of weights and measures. Under his son, Louis I., we find Ostend mentioned as a small seaport. Ships of various kinds were already made use of for commercial as well as for warlike purposes, all of which are carefully described in the work before us.

In the ninth century, says Sigebert de Gembloux, Antwerp had already attained a certain importance as a place of traffic. Anderson, in his "History of Commerce," shows that the Flemings had, from the year 836, held an interchange of products with Scotland, which the Scots

found very advantageous, especially for the sale of their salt fish. The inhabitants of Aldenbourg were, even at that time, in the habit of going regularly into Wales on fishing excursions, killing their fish with lances and arrows. About a century later, BALDWIN III., Count of Flanders, instituted regular annual fairs in all the principal towns, which attracted a great many foreigners, and were instrumental in making Bruges, Courtrai, Calais and Thourout very prosperous cities.

To prove the prosperity produced in Flanders by commerce, it suffices to show that twelve or fourteen rich Flemings helped WILLIAM of Normandy in his conquest of England, by supplying him with soldiers, ships and money. Among other names cited we find GILBERT of Ghent, PHILIP and HUMPHREY of Courtrai, BERTRAND of Melle, RICHARD of Bruges, and many more. M. THIERRY is wrong in saying, in his "History of the Conquest of England," that the Count of Flanders refused all assistance to WILLIAM. The latter even promised to pay his father-in-law an annual rent of 300 marks in silver as the price of his supplies. This is stated by the English historian, MALMESBURY, and the Flemish chroniclers, MEYER, ONDEGHERST and DESPARS. Twenty ships were equipped by Flanders for this expedition. After the conquest many Saxons of noble birth took refuge in the Low Countries, and among others, the mother and the sister of HAROLD. It is to be regretted that M. VAN BRUYSSEL has not alluded to the latter, as her tomb, with an inscription giving the details of her sorrows, was found some years ago among the ruins of the church of St. DONAT, in Bruges. This circumstance was well worth mentioning.

In such warlike times there were no laws for the regulation of commerce. The first appears in the eleventh century after the conquest of Jerusalem by GODFREY, of Bouillon. He established what are called *the assizes of the kingdom of Jerusalem*, the second part of which relates entirely to the rights and duties of maritime transactions.

Under HENRY I., of England, a considerable number of Flemish manufacturers and tradesmen settled in Pembrokeshire, where they constructed a road of great extent, called *Flemings' Way*, to facilitate traffic. Their cleverness in weaving wool and flax was so remarkable, that GERVASIUS, in his chronicle, says that it was in them an inborn gift of nature. TYTLER, in his history of Scotland, tells us, also, that the influx of Flemish merchants at the end of the twelfth century was one of the great causes of wealth in that country; and MACPHERSON, in his "Annals of Commerce," states that they were the first who introduced the cultivation of flax and hemp into England, as is mentioned in a charter of Westminster, in 1175.

A little later we find that some of the cities of Flanders possessed the largest emporiums of merchandise to be found in all Europe. WILLIAM, the Breton, thus describes in his poem of the "Philippidos" the amount of wealth in the harbor of Damme, when PHILIP AUGUSTUS, king of France, came to attack Flanders with 1,700 ships. He speaks of the port of Calais:

"The merchandise brought there by foreign vessels exceeds all belief. Masses of bullion, heaps of oriental wools, wax, cloths, Hungarian furs, grain, wines from Gascony, iron and other metals, and a number of other products from England, which were collected at Damme preparatory to exportation into other countries, bringing large profits to speculators."

M. VAN BRUYSSEL gives interesting details on the forms of the different vessels of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, and on the commercial relations between Belgium and Europe during the same period. England, Scotland and Ireland traded with the Flemings in woods, leathers, lead, coals, cheese and salt. They received from Norway various sorts of birds; from Denmark, horses; from Russia, furs; Bohemia, Hungary and Poland, sent wax and gold and silver ingots; from Aragon came saffron, rice, almonds, &c.; from Germany, wine, corn and iron. Fez, Tunis and Morocco traded in furs and sugar; Constantinople, in alum and fruits; Egypt, in spices; and from Palestine, Armenia and other parts, came silks and gold and silver cloths.

The researches made by the author are very considerable. His long residence in London enabled him to examine the repositories of ancient documents; and the reader will be rewarded for perusing this book, more amusing in parts than many works of fiction, and replete with information hitherto but little known to the public.

THE COTTON QUESTION.

A GLANCE AT THE COTTON TRADE.

By T. BAZLEY, *of Manchester.*

WE reprint the extended remarks made by Mr. THOMAS BAZLEY, (M. P. for Manchester,) at the recent meeting of the British Association. The facts communicated by Mr. BAZLEY are valuable in themselves, but his ignorance of the political features of the United States is somewhat curious, and no doubt leads some persons astray in their estimates of the workings of commerce and legislation in this country. Mr. BAZLEY, for instance, says "*the North has robbed the South by unjust exactions;*" for which he has no ground in fact. He alludes to the operation of the tariff. Now it is well known that the South has not been forced to buy northern goods when it preferred foreign. The duties paid by the South amount, perhaps, to fifteen millions of dollars annually on foreign goods consumed by them, or about two dollars per head. It is the North, mainly, that pay the duties on iron, woollens, liquors, &c. The South has the same advantages, and even greater, in the establishment of domestic manufactures, and could (in a time of peace) produce their own cotton goods as well as the North, if they thought proper. In fact, the South could manufacture cotton without the expense of double freight, double commissions, double insurance and loss of time, now involved in sending their raw cotton to remote parts, all which expenses are paid by the northern and European manufacturer on goods consumed in the southern States.

"*A protective system has been fostered in the North, founded very extensively upon the pirated inventions of this country,*" (England.) Here Mr. BAZLEY is equally at fault. If he will recur to the history of England for the past hundred years, he will find that it was by the protective system that England has built up her credit, wealth and greatness; and *to this day*

maintains a tariff more severe than the "odious" MORRILL tariff, which is so loudly abused by English politicians and their press. Great Britain last year levied custom-house duties amounting to twenty-two millions sterling, or about $110,000,000. The United States, with a population two millions larger than that of Great Britain, has levied in no one year over sixty-four millions of dollars. The ten years, from 1850—1859, the aggregate custom-house duties levied by the United States were $531,000,000, or an average of fifty-three millions of dollars; whereas Great Britain levied during the same period two hundred and fourteen millions sterling, or $1,070,000,000, or about double the former.

Upon the single article of tobacco, mainly exported from this country, Great Britain has levied, in ten years, duties to the amount of two hundred and twenty millions of dollars! This is far more than the duties levied by the United States *upon all the goods* imported from Great Britain. Indeed, England has no ground of complaint against us as to the tariff. Let her reduce her custom-house duties to a level with our own and we will be content. Mr. BAZLEY's remarks were as follow:—*Ed. M. M.*

A century ago the population of Manchester was below 30,000, whilst now 350,000 persons reside in and occupy it. Population and wealth have wonderfully increased and ramified to other places; but now, in the zenith of prosperity, a mysterious hand has written upon our walls the words of caution and of admonition. During the last fifty years upwards of 20,000,000,000 pounds weight of cotton from all sources have been consumed in Great Britain, and the value would probably be not less than £750,000,000 sterling, or might equal a sum of the amount of our national debt, the chief supply having been obtained from the United States of America. Upon a fair computation, the import of that material, which has so largely employed the capital and labor of this country, has yielded a profit of not less than £1,000,000,000 sterling to the people of the United Kingdom within that period. The wonder is that so large a supply of cotton could be procured from that one source, the United States; and when we reflect that this country possesses a monopoly of the vast extent of territory found in the whole world capable of producing this raw material, the inference is most palpable, that there has been developed the most successful agricultural industry in the States of America, which has been either ever contemplated or realized; whilst in British colonies and dependencies apathy and neglect have prevailed. If the legislature had little sympathy with the great industry of Lancashire, the interests of our foreign possessions might have induced our rulers to stimulate productions in them, which would have found compensating markets at home.

The advocates of large and of independent supplies of raw cotton, from all possible sources, have never desired governmental favors, their object having been to promote the removal of repressing obstacles, and to procure, by the aid of a sound colonial policy, at least a fair share, in proportion to the extent of our foreign possessions, of not only cotton, but of every other product which they might more abundantly have yielded. During the last year the consumption of cotton in Great Britain was 85 per cent. from the United States, 8 per cent. from other foreign sources, and 7 per cent. from British territory.

The present position of the trade is most precarious and dangerous. Existing stocks and prospective supplies of cotton may enable the mills

to be worked into the spring of next year, at moderately full time; but afterwards, unless supplies be received from the United States, independent sources can only furnish the means of keeping the mills at work little more than one day in the week. With the growth of this industry 5,000,000 of our population have become, directly and indirectly, dependent upon it for their subsistence; and the productiveness of their capital and labor, including the raw material, was, for the last year, nearly eighty million pounds sterling. Of this large value twenty-five millions of cotton manufactures were absorbed in the consumption of the people of the United Kingdom, and there remained for exportation fifty-five millions.

The estimated capital engaged in its fixed and floating investments is two hundred million pounds. Now, when we contemplate the vast interests involved in this surprising trade, seeing that the people employed and connected with it exceed the population of the kingdom of Belgium, of Holland and of Portugal; that the national treasury receives from it an amazing sum in aid of the expenses of the State; that a commercial marine of unparalleled magnitude derives support from it; that the comfort and happiness of the laborers employed in it are imperilled by any indications which threaten to disturb its existence and prosperity; and that its suspension, or serious curtailment, would even endanger the general weal; we may well inquire what efforts have been made to sustain the usefulness, prosperity and permanency of this source of national riches.

That the cotton trade should have rested chiefly upon the one supply of the States of America for its very means of existence, every good and every wise man has deplored; but that to produce that supply the portion of the human family which is most defenceless should be held in the degradation of slavery is abhorrent to the feelings of the righteous, of the humane and of the benevolent. Most effectually to suppress slavery will be to supersede the necessity for the labor of the slave, and if the chiefs of Africa could be induced to cultivate sugar, cotton and tobacco upon their own soil, they need not expel and degrade their laborers.

Of the commercial policy of the United States of America censures can scarcely be too severe. In the Northern States protection has prevailed, and the people of the South have been compelled to pay extravagant and monopolist prices for the manufactures produced by their own agricultural labor, and which, in the form of cotton, has been received in this country free from every tax. The North has robbed the South by unjust exactions, and the South has robbed the negro of life and liberty! Why the British manufacturer has tamely submitted to an import tax of 30 per cent. upon cotton goods entering the States of America, whilst the raw cotton, the growth of those States, has been received here free from tax or impost, without making an effort to procure supplies of his raw material from free labor, with the right to send free exports in exchange, can only be accounted for by the anxiety to possess an apparent immediate benefit at the cost of advantages more enduring, but which could only be regarded as of prospective or future possession.

Partial and unjust government has at length reaped the fruit of convulsion, and for which unjust policy had sown the seed. The North has taxed for its own protection and advantage the people of the South and

their industry; and the South has held in degradation, oppression and slavery the laborers who have enriched their owners. Mutual wrongs have been committed, and hitherto no just object appears before the world as a cause of the lamentable struggle which is exhausting both of them. But slavery is doomed.

A protective system has been fostered in the North, founded very extensively upon the pirated inventions of this country, and by the agency of which our manufactures have been largely excluded from the markets of the States. Even their very literature has been abstracted from the intellectual faculties of those in their fatherland who have only their cultivated minds and soul-breathing thoughts for their inheritance.

In addition to these grave reasons, which mainly affect the morality of the States, this country has been paying a tribute of five million pounds sterling per annum to those States in excess of the price at which cotton could be remuneratively produced and sold. With the convulsion which exists in America, with the adverse commercial policy dominant there, and with the inhuman system of slavery which prevails in the cotton producing districts, what are the duties which devolve upon our governing and mercantile classes? If by the convulsion of the States we are taught our national as well as commercial duties, the lesson will be ultimately beneficial.

Whether it has been wise for our government to see continually increasing the dependence of this great trade upon the one chief supply of its raw material, and that source adverse in interest, and oppressive to its own labor, we can only answer in the negative. With the East and West Indies, with tracts in South, East and West Africa, and with land in Australia as extensive as Europe, capable of growing cotton from the lowest to the highest qualities, it is a national reproach to us that we have permitted our own fields to be uncultivated, and that our spinners and manufacturers have been driven by necessity to consume the produce of slavery.

Lacking the means of communication and of irrigation, the resources of the East Indies remain in much the same dormant condition in which they have been for two thousand years; but brighter prospects are opening in that great dependency; railways are being constructed, canals formed, river navigation improved and works of irrigation promoted. One great defect is, however, retained with perverse tenacity. The tenure of land is obstructive alike to the rights of individual ownership, and to its effective cultivation. Without doing the slightest wrong to the holders of any land, its equitable transfer might be sanctioned, and a landed proprietary as influential as in our own country might be established. Protection to life and the rights of property, with every other just adjunct of good government, will inevitably lead to prosperity.

Small supplies of cotton, as good as that obtained from New-Orleans, are now received from India, and the cotton of this vast dependency is certainly improving; but whilst, from a combination of circumstances and causes, the ryot of India is only paid 12s. per acre for his crop of cotton, and the American cultivator can obtain £12, the energy and capability of the former cannot be developed. Supposing efforts to be made commensurate with indicated difficulties, all the common cottons, or 75 per cent. of the consumption of Great Britain, might be obtained from India in a couple of years. From Egypt the supply of cotton may

increase, but there the withering influence of the despot retards its extended cultivation, though the spirited, energetic and successful enterprise of MEHEMET ALI is an example deserving the imitation of better men. He introduced that agricultural industry into his vice-royalty, and founded a fountain of wealth whence flow millions of annual income to the advantage of Egypt.

For all the finer, higher and better classes of cotton, from New-Orleans, Brazil and Egypt, to the most beautiful Sea Island, Queensland, in Australia, might quickly afford all requisite supplies. That territory alone, besides sustaining the population of Europe, could easily be made to produce all the cotton now consumed in the world; but so sweeping a change and enlarged production need not be deliberated upon, the facts being only referred to as illustrating the powers of that colony. In seeking from the government the development of the resources of the colonies, the two-fold advantage would arise of which that power would financially be greatly benefited, alike at home and in the colonies. Government must set its colonial house in order. Land grants for beneficial purposes should be free, facilities afforded for emigration, public works promoted, and prosperity will follow in the train. Capitalists, merchants and manufacturers, whose investments are largely embarked in the cotton trade, have duties devolving upon them.

These bodies are known to have large investments in foreign railways, in the cultivation of sugar and other products, and in many dubious securities; but in the cultivation of the staple raw material of their own pursuits they have not ventured to embark. Last year the cotton trade contributed to capital and labor fifty million pounds sterling, and in the last fifty years the aggregate reward has been one thousand millions. Surely from these treasures might be spared some pittance of capital to free the negro, and to insure still greater prosperity to industry.

Supposing the government of our country to be willing to make all the preliminary arrangements which will contribute to the security and profit of capital invested in cotton growing, the clear duty of the class referred to will be to enter upon investments with no niggard hand; and, for their encouragement, it may be mentioned that very recently an extensive Louisiana cotton planter has asserted that he could grow cotton at 3d. per lb. which is now worth 9d. per lb. in Liverpool, and of course he has had to buy his laborers, and afterwards to sustain them. The confessed profit is 200 per cent., but, in all sobriety of judgment, cotton growing would afford 100 per cent. of recompense.

Here, then, the governing, the capitalist, the mercantile and the manufacturing classes have duties in common to perform, and from which none of them should withhold their willing help. Upon this subject the warning voice has been long and often heard, and the present embarrassment in cotton supplies has been anticipated. Having, therefore, been forewarned, may this great and world-benefiting industry be forearmed.

ANNUAL REPORT ON BREADSTUFFS.

THE export of breadstuffs, domestic as well as foreign, is one of the first importance to this country; it is especially so to the city and State of New-York in the present condition of the financial and commercial affairs of the nation. From the port of New-York alone were exported to foreign countries, in the single month of August, 1861, (being the close of the cereal year,) no less than 297,000 barrels of flour, 2,389,000 bushels of wheat and 2,338,000 bushels of Indian corn, valued at over six millions of dollars. In order to present this subject to our readers in its full breadth, we copy from the annual circular of Mr. EDWARD BILL the following tabular statement of the export of breadstuffs, from this and other ports, to Great Britain and Ireland, for the past year, compared with fourteen former years, viz., 1846–1860:

EXPORT OF BREADSTUFFS TO GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, FROM SEPTEMBER 1, 1860, TO SEPTEMBER 1, 1861.

From	*Barrels Flour.*	*Barrels Corn Meal.*	*Bushels Wheat.*	*Bushels Corn.*
New-York,	1,775,338	3,266	20,541,073	8,653,569
New-Orleans,	179,427	996	66,767	1,464,267
Philadelphia,	192,175	.....	1,593,416	704,447
Baltimore,	127,031	48	969,084	853,200
Boston,	126,846	106	13,032	14,100
Other ports,	160,844	.....	2,369,998	15,451
One year to Sept. 1, 1861,	2,561,661	4,416	25,553,370	11,705,034
" " 1860,	717,156	944	4,938,714	2,221,857
" " 1859,	106,457	58	439,010	342,013
" " 1858,	1,295,430	143	6,555,643	3,317,802
" " 1857,	849,600	685	7,479,401	4,746,278
" " 1856,	1,641,265	6,816	7,956,406	6,731,161
" " 1855,	175,209	4,768	324,427	6,679,138
" " 1854,	1,846,920	41,726	6,038,003	6,049,371
" " 1853,	1,600,449	100	4,823,519	1,425,278
" " 1852,	1,427,442	1,680	2,728,442	1,487,398
" " 1851,	1,559,584	5,620	1,496,355	2,205,601
" " 1850,	574,757	6,411	461,276	4,753,358
" " 1849,	1,187,556	82,900	1,140,194	12,685,260
" " 1848,	182,583	108,534	241,309	4,390,226
" " 1847,	3,155,845	844,187	4,000,359	17,157,659
Total for fifteen years,	18,831,914	1,108,988	74,176,428	85,897,434

TO THE CONTINENT, FROM NEW-YORK AND OTHER PORTS.

	Barrels Flour.	*Bushels Wheat.*	*Bushels Corn.*	*Barrels Rye.*
One year to Sept. 1, 1861,	142,129	3,452,496	101,145	347,258
" " 1860,	49,243	178,031	19,358	....
" " 1859,	51,388	57,845	25,519	....
" " 1858,	303,100	390,428	16,848	13,100
" " 1857,	483,344	2,875,653	543,590	216,162
" " 1856,	748,408	2,610,079	282,083	1,975,178
" " 1855,	7,763	4,972	308,428	35,569
Total for seven years,	1,785,375	9,569,504	1,296,971	2,587,267

FROM CANADA TO GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, *via* ST. LAWRENCE.

	Barrels Flour.	*Bushels Wheat.*	*Bushels Corn.*	*Bushels Peas.*	*Bushels Oats.*	*Barrels Oatm'l.*
Jan. 1 to Aug. 22, 1861,	369,648	3,221,277	134,196	1,236,218	289,273	17,929

In order to show the breadstuffs trade of this port alone, as indicated by its foreign exports, we extract from the *New-York Shipping List* the following elaborate monthly table of exports of breadstuffs to all foreign ports from New-York city, from Sept. 1 to Aug. 31, for the following years:

FLOUR—Bbls.

Months.	1860–61.	1859–60.	1858–59.	1857–58.	1856–57.	1855–56.	1854–55.	1853–54.	1852–53.	1851–52.	1850–51.	1849–50.
September,	251,688	79,422	92,851	80,776	108,202	111,471	24,302	197,482	125,246	122,336	215,084	74,575
October,	270,899	141,157	140,298	169,506	198,896	193,961	84,687	261,143	122,974	84,339	141,687	45,266
November,	228,678	126,641	75,906	171,886	244,689	221,878	49,757	410,258	106,663	143,460	155,268	69,145
December,	187,565	139,589	53,266	104,584	205,808	207,052	56,188	395,289	112,010	74,504	96,555	80,160
January,	166,959	49,188	80,230	125,720	110,546	180,889	72,794	208,700	115,746	39,336	49,855	56,302
February,	186,368	84,635	86,120	103,982	94,305	126,043	30,244	182,218	101,927	61,268	28,002	33,007
March,	171,539	69,193	49,140	78,558	119,665	89,411	22,474	85,052	157,185	62,612	27,649	27,181
April,	211,140	88,445	71,168	124,790	80,128	74,875	40,890	67,106	146,117	76,750	44,905	23,831
May,	200,068	102,810	65,492	111,604	78,685	124,952	37,608	70,890	68,294	142,606	97,286	29,376
June,	271,593	177,877	56,800	162,877	53,188	329,848	20,884	96,052	145,008	149,588	97,466	55,406
July,	281,779	221,607	11,842	173,808	59,919	293,185	33,087	87,246	187,682	180,806	231,084	47,991
August,	297,948	239,286	75,006	140,708	58,869	217,754	36,240	82,560	164,968	124,857	268,888	148,462
Total,	2,728,019	1,465,250	762,759	1,547,794	1,402,350	2,169,769	459,145	2,043,458	1,548,715	1,261,952	1,453,574	690,052

Export of WHEAT—Bushels—from New-York.

Months.	1860–61.	1859–60.	1858–59.	1857–58.	1856–57.	1855–56.	1854–55.	1853–54.	1852–53.	1851–52.	1850–51.	1849–50.
September,	2,228,924	.....	132,890	620,622	1,099,029	277,583	.....	930,528	551,883	204,864	64,226	27,288
October,	2,600,226	79,889	174,670	694,241	1,829,131	947,569	16,953	1,502,861	684,638	118,886	103,229	41,716
November,	2,472,162	144,408	124,815	910,269	2,057,918	1,214,102	13,728	1,809,908	471,289	317,743	265,822	69,610
December,	2,027,145	117,112	9,787	468,325	1,464,201	1,011,626	108,082	1,491,907	441,246	152,585	164,227	116,577
January,	832,169	50,196	10,750	180,681	239,994	866,531	41,541	661,676	261,896	88,819	23,641	88,802
February,	1,060,995	59,299	5,990	17,358	177,179	209,884	....	288,621	112,801	103,554	.....	14,568
March,	972,688	25,842	600	33,257	270,061	143,874	3,643	299,965	189,302	120,608	40,608	2,010
April,	999,843	175,878	1,567	127,743	133,708	79,159	....	43,558	276,842	136,142	20,081	3,138
May,	1,729,108	356,010	3,000	405,680	75,092	248,523	986	63,580	172,179	165,617	65,755	.....
June,	3,577,243	792,926	....	1,171,513	180,698	910,765	1,485	807,302	890,976	82,044	60,525	11,640
July,	2,968,999	1,401,791	9,026	672,939	182,980	1,291,599	12,675	145,209	597,092	279,122	192,096	100
August,	2,389,645	1,743,045	14,184	885,298	112,509	1,214,167	61,806	77,858	520,200	206,986	270,665	45,954
Total,	23,859,147	4,946,346	487,288	5,696,876	7,772,495	7,966,882	255,849	7,622,938	4,669,344	1,976,950	1,270,960	374,398

Export of CORN—Bushels—from New-York.

Months.	1860–61.	1859–60.	1858–59.	1857–58.	1856–57.	1855–56.
September,.....	189,726	12,175	72,861	175,126	858,727	857,342
October,.....	260,098	7,923	200,735	190,068	383,888	130,407
November,.....	599,531	2,610	98,178	87,634	380,682	206,279
December,.....	851,870	9,066	15,560	49,190	287,540	332,165
January,.....	613,261	4,149	5,789	144,684	142,642	295,298
February,.....	608,751	23,561	20,775	256,797	311,701	221,606
March,.....	789,664	70,321	19,298	412,406	681,560	401,302
April,.....	1,057,004	105,786	21,701	456,814	357,528	557,506
May,.....	799,151	483,980	16,739	142,331	135,998	348,795
June,.....	768,968	877,573	19,480	109,529	21,678	300,716
July,.....	897,276	175,886	33,684	19,268	18,557	97,696
August,.....	2,388,429	147,871	16,729	13,244	76,089	256,657
Total,.....	9,268,729	1,919,871	536,524	2,057,086	3,606,585	3,499,506

Months.	1854–55.	1853–54.	1852–53.	1851–52.	1850–51.	1849–50.
September,.....	198,857	19,890	20,914	30,008	51,518	61,978
October,.....	490,118	26,004	11,517	114,095	24,671	193,131
November,.....	880,573	144,168	5,743	114,814	18,943	145,805
December,.....	750,563	864,175	12,208	8,073	49,845	70,792
January,.....	508,859	453,311	30,956	42,199	58,673	97,662
February,.....	320,097	726,711	122,716	50,823	42,909	522,423
March,.....	333,834	591,358	184,860	78,819	25,065	463,141
April,.....	168,314	383,959	118,426	107,255	67,308	360,084
May,.....	86,307	360,759	65,963	190,196	510,507	414,529
June,.....	437,828	488,415	42,275	104,609	434,337	419,525
July,.....	778,485	109,231	12,086	105,588	175,895	119,073
August,.....	333,414	124,111	8,993	33,861	111,441	11,936
Total,.....	5,327,269	3,792,092	636,557	980,220	1,555,521	2,880,018

FOREIGN EXPORTS OF FLOUR, WHEAT AND CORN, FOR THE YEAR ENDING AUGUST 31, 1861, FROM THE PORT OF NEW-YORK.

		Flour.			Wheat.			Corn.		
			Average price.	*Total value.*		*Average price.*	*Total value.*		*Average price.*	*Total value.*
Sept.,	1860,..	251,688	$5 85	$1,472,874	2,228,924	$1 30	$2,897,601	189,726	68 c.	$128,014
Oct.,	" ..	270,892	5 75	1,557,629	2,600,226	1 22	3,172,275	260,098	66	171,665
Nov.,	" ..	228,678	5 70	1,303,465	2,472,162	1 28	3,164,367	599,531	70	419,672
Dec.,	" ..	187,565	5 25	984,716	2,027,145	1 15	2,331,217	851,870	66	511,122
Jan.,	1861,..	168,959	5 70	963,066	832,169	1 26	1,048,533	613,261	72	441,548
Feb.,	" ..	186,868	5 60	1,046,461	1,060,995	1 26	1,336,853	608,751	70	422,696
March,	" ..	171,589	5 50	943,464	972,688	1 25	1,215,860	789,664	68	536,971
April,	" ..	211,140	5 60	1,182,384	999,843	1 28	1,279,799	1,057,004	70	739,903
May,	" ..	200,068	5 50	1,100,004	1,729,108	1 25	2,161,385	799,151	68	543,423
June,	" ..	271,593	5 50	1,493,761	3,577,243	1 20	4,292,692	768,968	57	438,312
July,	" ..	281,779	4 50	1,268,006	2,968,999	1 00	2,968,999	897,276	54	216,529
Aug.,	" ..	297,243	4 75	1,411,904	2,889,645	1 00	2,889,645	2,388,429	48	1,122,446
12 months,..		2,728,012		$14,727,234	28,859,147		$28,259,226	9,268,729		$5,690,231

JOURNAL OF AGRICULTURE.

I. The British Harvest. II. The Importance of a Good Harvest. III. Guano Discoveries. IV. Flax Culture.

THE BRITISH HARVEST OF 1861.

The latest accounts received, with respect to the harvest, are not satisfactory. The wheat crop is deficient in the number of sheaves, and the weight, after threshing, is inferior to that of a fair average crop. Many fields of wheat are injured by rust, and in other places the corn on the ground has heated. The farmers who cut their wheat before it arrived at maturity have suffered least. These unfavorable accounts have produced an effect on the Paris flour-market, and sellers are now slow in presenting themselves. Even bakers have consented to pay one franc the sack more than in the preceding week.

THE IMPORTANCE OF A GOOD HARVEST.

The cost of British imports of grain of all kinds, as well as flour for the last seven years, were, in the year

1854,....	£21,760,283	.. 1856,....	£23,039,422	.. 1858,....	£20,152,641
1855,....	17,508,700	.. 1857,....	19,380,567	.. 1859,....	18,042,033

making a total in six years of £119,833,676, and an annual average of £19,980,613, paid for foreign grain and flour, while in the year 1860 the cost amounted to the enormous sum of £31,671,918, mainly owing to the bad harvest in England; but these figures do not represent, by any means, the full extent to which we are still subjected by the harvest of 1860. They only show what a large sum of money we have paid; but the payments in that year were not near so heavy as they have been since. The official information, brought down to the end of April, makes the value of the grain and flour imported in the first four months of 1859, £4,384,045; 1860, £3,913,001, and 1861, £12,435,435, by which it will be seen that we have been paying for the first four months of the current year at the rate of £37,306,305 per annum, or £8,522,434 more for breadstuffs than in the same period of 1860.—*London Times, Aug.*, 1861.

GUANO DISCOVERIES.

By accounts recently received from Sydney, it appears that the guano, discovered some time since on Flat Island, in Port Philip Bay, is now in much use, the difference of price between this guano and that imported from the Chincha and other islands on the coast of Peru being very considerable, the former being five guineas per ton, while the latter commands from £15 to £16. Experienced navigators aver that large de-

posits of that article are to be found upon the many uninhabited spots on the South Sea Islands. Samples from some places in the South Pacific, brought by American vessels, have been analyzed with even more favorable results than those of the Flat Island. In one analysis of the latter, the highest per centage of that fertilizing substance, phosphate, was 43.03, whilst the former shows a much superior per centage, and is as follows: Phosphate and carbonate of lime, 65; moisture, 28; organic matter, 5; saline matter, 2—100. It is devoid of smell in consequence of its deficiency of ammonia. Flat Island guano, on its first introduction into Victoria, met with much prejudice; but its extensive use now has removed this erroneous impression. Government, as well as the Board of Agriculture, have been furnished with various analyses, which all agree as to the efficacy of Flat Island guano. The cargo of guano, the analysis of which is given above, was brought from M'Keen's Island, one of the Phœnix group, in 4° south latitude, 176° west longitude. Other cargoes have been brought from Baker's Island, 13 miles north of the equator, 23° south latitude, 176° west longitude.

FLAX CULTURE.

An adjourned meeting of the prominent citizens of Niagara county, and others interested, was held at the American Hotel, Lockport, in August last, to hear the report of a committee appointed to ascertain the facts in regard to the culture of flax in that locality, and to confer with the "American Flax Company." The practical conclusions of the committee may be gathered from the following:

That from the best information they could obtain from farmers and publications upon the subject, a fair average yield of dry straw after the seed has been threshed off, is a ton and a half per acre, and ten bushels of seed, although two tons of straw and eighteen bushels of seed have frequently been raised upon an acre of land. That the lands of this county and the adjoining counties of Erie, Orleans and Genesee, are well adapted to the growth of flax, and that the crop in these counties would be highly remunerative to the farmers. We do not regard it as a peculiarly exhausting crop, and it has the great advantage of keeping the land clean and free from weeds, and is a good crop to seed with, either for timothy or clover.

After hearing the report, a discussion of the subject ensued, in which Hon. WASHINGTON HUNT and Hon. S. B. RUGGLES, Mr. TURNER, of Black Rock, and other distinguished gentlemen took part. The following resolutions were adopted:

On motion of Governor HUNT, it was resolved, that it is the opinion of this meeting that the "American Flax Company" will be able to procure all they want at $8 per ton, and that we will do all in our power to aid and assist in procuring such supply.

On motion of Dr. MORSE, it was resolved, that a committee of three be appointed to get the pledge of farmers to raise from one to three thousand tons of flax straw, to see that a sufficient supply of the best kind of flax seed be brought into market, and to make such other arrangements as are necessary to forward the enterprise.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

I. The new Patent Law of the United States. II. Patent Laws of European Governments. III. Quicksilver. IV. Cocoanut Oil. V. India Rubber Varnish.

UNITED STATES PATENT LAW AMENDMENT ACT OF 1861.

An Act in addition to "An Act to promote the Progress of the Useful Arts." Approved March 2, 1861.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the commissioner of patents may establish rules for taking affidavits and depositions required in cases pending in the Patent Office, and such affidavits and depositions may be taken before any justice of the peace, or other officer authorized by law to take depositions to be used in the courts of the United States, or in the State courts of any State where such officer shall reside; and in any contested case pending in the Patent Office, it shall be lawful for the clerk of any court of the United States for any district or territory, and he is hereby required, upon the application of any party to such contested case, or the agent or attorney of such party, to issue subpœnas for any witnesses residing or being within the said district or territory, commanding such witnesses to appear and testify before any justice of the peace, or other officer as aforesaid, residing within the said district or territory, at any time and place in the subpœna to be stated; and if any witness, after being duly served with such subpœna, shall refuse or neglect to appear, or, after appearing, shall refuse to testify, (not being privileged from giving testimony,) such refusal or neglect being proved to the satisfaction of any judge of the court whose clerk shall have issued such subpœna, said judge may thereupon proceed to enforce obedience to the process, or to punish the disobedience in like manner as any court of the United States may do in case of disobedience to process of *subpœna ad testificandum* issued by such court; and witnesses in such cases shall be allowed the same compensation as is allowed to witnesses attending the courts of the United States. *Provided*, That no witnesses shall be required to attend at any place more than forty miles from the place where the subpœna shall be served upon him to give a deposition under this law. *Provided, also*, That no witness shall be deemed guilty of contempt for refusing to disclose any secret invention made or owned by him. *And provided, further*, That no witness shall be deemed guilty of contempt for disobeying any subpœna directed to him by virtue of this act, unless his fees for going to, returning from and one day's attendance at the place of examination, shall be paid or tendered to him at the time of the service of the subpœna.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That, for the purposes of securing greater uniformity of action in the grant and refusal of letters patent, there shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, three examiners-in-chief, at an annual salary of

three thousand dollars each, to be composed of persons of competent legal knowledge and scientific ability, whose duty it shall be, on the written petition of the applicant, for that purpose being filed, to revise and determine upon the validity of decisions made by examiners when adverse to the grant of letters-patent, and also to revise and determine in like manner upon the validity of the decisions of examiners in interference cases, and when required by the commissioner in applications for the extension of patents, and to perform such other duties as may be assigned to them by the commissioner; that from their decisions appeals may be taken to the commissioner of patents in person, upon payment of the fee hereinafter prescribed; that the said examiners-in-chief shall be governed in their action by the rules to be prescribed by the commissioner of patents.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That no appeal shall be allowed to the examiners-in-chief from the decisions of the primary examiners, except in interference cases, until after the application shall have been twice rejected; and the second examination of the application by the primary examiner shall not be had until the applicant, in view of the references given on the first rejection, shall have renewed the oath of invention, as provided for in the seventh section of the act, entitled "An act to promote the progress of the useful arts, and to repeal all acts and parts of acts heretofore made for that purpose," approved July fourth, eighteen hundred and thirty-six.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the salary of the commissioner of patents, from and after the passage of this act, shall be four thousand five hundred dollars per annum, and the salary of the chief clerk of the Patent Office shall be two thousand five hundred dollars, and the salary of the librarian of the Patent Office shall be eighteen hundred dollars.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That the commissioner of patents is authorized to restore to the respective applicants, or, when not removed by them, to otherwise dispose of such of the models belonging to rejected applications as he shall not think necessary to be preserved. The same authority is also given in relation to all models accompanying applications for designs. He is further authorized to dispense in future with models of designs when the design can be sufficiently represented by a drawing.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That the tenth section of the act approved the third of March, eighteen hundred and thirty-seven, authorizing the appointment of agents for the transportation of models and specimens to the Patent Office, is hereby repealed.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That the commissioner is further authorized, from time to time, to appoint, in the manner already provided for by law, such an additional number of principal examiners, first assistant examiners and second assistant examiners, as may be required to transact the current business of the office with despatch, provided the whole number of additional examiners shall not exceed four of each class, and that the total annual expenses of the Patent Office shall not exceed the annual receipts.

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That the commissioner may require all papers filed in the Patent Office, if not correctly, legibly and clearly written, to be printed at the cost of the parties filing such

papers; and for gross misconduct he may refuse to recognise any person as a patent agent, either generally or in any particular case; but the reasons of the commissioner for such refusal shall be duly recorded, and be subject to the approval of the President of the United States.

SEC. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That no money paid as a fee on any application for a patent, after the passage of this act, shall be withdrawn or refunded, nor shall the fee paid on filing a caveat be considered as part of the sum required to be paid on filing a subsequent application for a patent for the same invention.

That the three months' notice given to any caveator, in pursuance of the requirements of the twelfth section of the act of July fourth, eighteen hundred and thirty-six, shall be computed from the day on which such notice is deposited in the post-office at Washington, with the regular time for the transmission of the same added thereto, which time shall be endorsed on the notice; and that so much of the thirteenth section of the act of Congress, approved July fourth, eighteen hundred and thirty-six, as authorizes the annexing to letters patent of the description and specification of additional improvements, is hereby repealed; and in all cases where additional improvements would now be admissible, independent patents must be applied for.

SEC. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That all laws now in force fixing the rates of the Patent Office fees to be paid, and discriminating between the inhabitants of the United States and those of other countries, which shall not discriminate against the inhabitants of the United States, are hereby repealed, and in their stead the following rates are established:

On filing each caveat, ten dollars.

On filing each original application for a patent, except for a design, fifteen dollars.

On issuing each original patent, twenty dollars.

On every appeal from the examiners-in-chief to the commissioner, twenty dollars.

On every application for the re-issue of a patent, thirty dollars.

On every application for the extension of a patent, fifty dollars; and fifty dollars, in addition, on the granting of every extension.

On filing each disclaimer, ten dollars.

For certified copies of patents and other papers, ten cents per hundred words.

For recording every assignment, agreement, power of attorney and other papers, of three hundred words or under, one dollar.

For recording every assignment and other papers over three hundred and under one thousand words, two dollars.

For recording every assignment or other writing, if over one thousand words, three dollars.

For copies of drawings, the reasonable cost of making the same.

SEC. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That any citizen or citizens, or alien or aliens, having resided one year in the United States, and taken the oath of his or their intention to become a citizen or citizens, who by his, her or their own industry, genius, efforts and expense, may have invented or produced any new and original design for a manufacture, whether of metal or other material or materials, an original design for a bust, statue or bass-relief, or composition in alto or basso relievo, or any new and original impression or ornament, or to be placed on any ar-

ticle of manufacture, the same being formed in marble or other material, or any new and useful pattern, or print, or picture, to be either worked into or worked on, or printed, or painted, or cast, or otherwise fixed on any article of manufacture, or any new and original shape or configuration of any article of manufacture, not known or used by others before his, her or their invention or production thereof, and prior to the time of his, her or their application for a patent therefor, and who shall desire to obtain an exclusive property or right therein to make, use and sell, and vend the same, or copies of the same, to others, by them to be made, used and sold, may make application in writing to the commissioner of patents, expressing such desire, and the commissioner, on due proceedings had, may grant a patent therefor, as in the case now of application for a patent, for the term of three and one-half years, or for the term of seven years, or for the term of fourteen years, as the said applicant may elect in his application: *Provided*, That the fee to be paid in such application shall be for the term of three years and six months, ten dollars; for seven years, fifteen dollars; and for fourteen years, thirty dollars: *And provided*, That the patentees of designs under this act shall be entitled to the extension of their respective patents for the term of seven years from the day on which said patents shall expire, upon the same terms and restrictions as are now provided for the extension of letters patent.

Sec. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That all applications for patents shall be completed and prepared for examination within two years after the filing of the petition, and in default thereof they shall be regarded as abandoned by the parties thereto, unless it be shown to the satisfaction of the commissioner of patents that such delay was unavoidable; and all applications now pending shall be treated as if filed after the passage of this act; and all applications for the extension of patents shall be filed at least ninety days before the expiration thereof, and notice of the day set for the hearing of the case shall be published, as now required by law, for at least sixty days.

Sec. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That in all cases where an article is made or vended by any person under the protection of letters patent, it shall be the duty of such person to give sufficient notice to the public that said article is so patented, either by fixing thereon the word patented, together with the day and year the patent was granted, or when, from the character of the article patented, that may be impracticable, by enveloping one or more of the said articles, and affixing a label to the package, or otherwise attaching thereto a label, on which the notice, with the date, is printed; on failure of which, in any suit for the infringement of letters patent by the party failing so to mark the article the right to which is infringed upon, no damage shall be recovered by the plaintiff, except on proof that the defendant was duly notified of the infringement, and continued after such notice to make or vend the article patented. And the sixth section of the act entitled "An act in addition to an act to promote the progress of the useful arts," and so forth, approved the twenty-ninth day of August, eighteen hundred and forty-two, be, and the same is hereby repealed.

Sec. 14. *And be it further enacted*, That the commissioner of patents be, and he is hereby authorized to print, or in his discretion to cause to be printed, ten copies of the description and claims of all patents which

may hereafter be granted, and ten copies of the drawings of the same, when drawings shall accompany the patents: *Provided*, The cost of printing the text of said descriptions and claims shall not exceed, exclusive of stationery, the sum of two cents per hundred words for each of said copies, and the cost of the drawing shall not exceed fifty cents per copy; one copy of the above number shall be printed on parchment, to be affixed to the letters patent; the work shall be under the direction, and subject to the approval of the commissioner of patents, and the expense of the said copies shall be paid for out of the patent fund.

SEC. 15. *And be it further enacted*, That printed copies of the letters patent of the United States, with the seal of the Patent Office affixed thereto, and certified and signed by the commissioner of patents, shall be legal evidence of the contents of said letters patent in all cases.

SEC. 16. *And be it further enacted*, That all patents hereafter granted shall remain in force for the term of seventeen years from the date of issue; and all extensions of such patents is hereby prohibited.

SEC. 17. *And be it further enacted*, That all acts and parts of acts heretofore passed, which are inconsistent with the provisions of this act, be, and the same are hereby repealed.

EUROPEAN PATENTS.

Many valuable inventions are yearly introduced into Europe from the United States, by parties ever on the alert to pick up whatever they can lay their hands upon which may seem useful. Models are not required in any European country, but the utmost care and experience are necessary in the preparation of each case. We copy from "*The Scientific American.*"

Great Britain.—From a synopsis of the patent laws, published in the *Scientific American*, it appears that patents for inventions, under the new law, as amended by the act of October 1, 1852, and now in operation, include the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in one grant, which confers the exclusive right to make, use, exercise or vend. This is conceded to the inventor or the introducer for a period of fourteen years, subject, after the patent is granted and the first expenses paid, to a government tax twice during its existence, once within three years, and once again within seven. The purchaser of a patent would assume the payment of these taxes.

There is no provision in the English law requiring that a patented invention shall be introduced into public use within any specified limit. Under the patent act of October, 1852, the British government relinquished its right to grant patents for any of its colonies, each colony being permitted to regulate its own patent system. If a patent has been previously taken out in a foreign country, the British patent will expire with it.

France.—Patents in France are granted for a term of fifteen years, unless the invention has been previously secured by patent in some other country; in such case it must take date with and expire with the previous patent. After the patent is issued the French government requires the payment of a small tax each year, so long as the patent is kept alive, and two years' time is given to put the invention patented into practice.

It should be borne in mind, that, although the French law does not require that the applicant should make oath to his papers, yet if a patent

should be obtained by any other person than the inventor, upon proof being adduced to this effect before the proper tribunal, the patent would be declared illegal.

Belgium.—Patents in Belgium are granted for twenty years, or, if previously patented in another country, they expire with the date thereof. The working of the invention must take place within one year from date of patent, but an extension for an additional year may be obtained on application to the proper authorities. Inventors are only legally entitled to take out patents.

The Netherlands.—Patents are granted by the Royal Institute of the Netherlands to natives or foreigners, represented by a resident subject, which extend to a period of about two years, within which time the invention must be brought into use, and, upon payment of an additional tax, a patent will be granted to complete its whole term of fifteen years. Unless these conditions are complied with the patent ceases.

Prussia.—Applications for patents in Prussia are examined by the Royal Polytechnic Commission; and unless there is novelty in the invention the applicant's petition will be denied; and if it is granted, the invention must be worked within six months afterward. A respite, however, of six additional months may be obtained, if good and sufficient reasons for it can be shown.

Austria.—Austrian patents are granted for a term of fifteen years, upon the payment of one thousand florins, or about five hundred dollars in American currency. This sum, however, is not all required to be paid in advance. It is usual to pay the tax for the first five years upon the deposit of the papers, and the patent must be worked within its first year. The Emperor can extend the patent and privilege of working by special grant. In order to obtain a patent in Austria, an authenticated copy of the original letters patent must be produced.

Spain.—The duration of a Spanish patent of importation is five years, and can be prolonged to ten years; and the invention is to be worked within one year and one day. To obtain a Cuban patent requires a special application and an extra charge.

Russia.—Since the close of the Crimean war considerable attention has been given to Russian patents by Americans. Russia is a country rich in mineral and agricultural products, and there seems to be a field open for certain kinds of improvements. The present Emperor is very liberally disposed towards inventors, and, as an evidence of the interest which he takes in the progress of mechanic arts, we may state that we have had visits from two distinguished Russian *savans*, specially sent out by the Emperor to examine American inventions. As Russian patents are expensive and somewhat difficult to obtain, we do not take it upon ourselves to advise applications; inventors must judge for themselves; and this remark applies not only to Russia, but also to all other foreign countries.

Canada.—Patents of invention are granted only to actual residents of Canada and British subjects. Under the general patent law of Canada, an American cannot procure a patent for his invention there. The only way in which he can do so is by virtue of a special act of Parliament, which is very difficult, uncertain and expensive to obtain. Several zealous friends of reform in Canada are working earnestly to bring about a reciprocal law, but their efforts have thus far proved fruitless.

British India.—The date of the law, February 28, 1856; duration of a patent, fourteen years. Invention must be worked within two years from date of petition. Privilege granted only to the original inventor or his authorized agent in India.

Saxony.—Duration of patent, from five to ten years. Invention must be worked within one year from date of grant. Careful examination made before granting a patent.

Hanover.—Duration of patent, ten years; and in case of foreign patent having been previously obtained, an authenticated copy of said patent must be produced. Invention must be worked within six months from date of grant.

Sardinia.—Duration of patent, from one to fifteen years. Patents for five years or less must be worked within one year, and all others within two years.

Norway and Sweden.—Duration of patent, three years at least, fifteen at most, according to the nature and importance of the invention. Patents for foreign inventions not to exceed the term granted abroad, and to be worked within one, two or four years.

Australia.—Date of law, March 31, 1854. Careful examination made by competent persons previous to issue of patent, which, when granted, extends to fourteen years. Imported inventions are valid according to duration of foreign patent. It would require from twelve to eighteen months to procure a patent from the Australian government.

QUICKSILVER.

The quantities of quicksilver exported from San Francisco during the first half of each of the last five years, and the market rate at the close of each period, were as follow:

First six months of				
1857,.....	11,938 flasks, ..	Value per lb., June 30th,	..	65 cents.
1858,.....	13,452 " ..	" "	..	65 "
1859,.....	581 " ..	" "	..	65 "
1860,.....	3,799 " ..	" "	..	$1
1861,.....	14,797 " ..	" "	..	40 cents.

It appears, from the data of the present year, that quicksilver is resuming the importance which it had attained prior to the suspension of the New-Almaden mine. The full operation of those extensive works, and the important progress constantly making in others, swell the export of this year to larger dimensions than ever, and have produced a corresponding reduction of its current value for that purpose. A much larger quantity can be produced, and a large increase in the export may be looked for.

COCOANUT OIL.

The production of cocoanut oil on islands in the Pacific is increasing. On June 11th the Hawaiian schooner MARILDA arrived at Honolulu in twelve days from Fanning's Island, bringing 12,000 gallons of cocoanut oil. She reported every thing at the island prospering. On her return she was to take the new oil-press constructed by Mr. HUGHES, at the Honolulu foundry, which will enable the proprietors to double the present manufacture of oil, at a much reduced cost of labor.

INDIA RUBBER VARNISH.

That India rubber dissolved in various liquids yields a good varnish is well known; but in general they are too viscid for delicate purposes, and are only good for making stuffs water-proof. India rubber liquified by heat, dissolved in oil of coal tar, or drying linseed oil, does not give a varnish of sufficient fluency or free from smell. Moreover, a considerable quantity of India rubber remains undissolved in a gelatinous state, suspended in the liquid, so that the solution is never clear. Dr. Bolly has recently published some remarks on this subject which may be useful. If India rubber be cut into small pieces and digested in sulphuret of carbon, a jelly will be formed; this must be treated with benzine, and thus a much greater proportion of caoutchouc will be dissolved than would be done by any other method. The liquid must be strained through a woollen cloth, and the sulphuret of carbon be drawn off by evaporation in a water bath; after which, the remaining liquid may be diluted at will with benzine, by which means a transparent, but still yellowish liquid, will be obtained. A more colorless solution may be prepared by digesting India rubber cut into small pieces for many days in benzine, and frequently shaking the bottle which contains it. The jelly thus formed will partly dissolve, yielding a liquid which is thicker than benzine, and may be obtained very clear by filtration and rest. The residue may be separated by straining, and will furnish an excellent water-proof composition. As for the liquid itself, it incorporates easily with all fixed or volatile oils. It dries very fast, and does not shine, unless mixed with resinous varnishes. It is extremely flexible, may be spread in very thin layers, and remain unaltered under the influence of air and light. It may be employed to varnish geographical maps or prints, because it does not affect the whiteness of the paper, does not reflect light disagreeably as resinous varnishes do, and is not subject to crack or come off in scales. It may be used to fix black chalk or pencil drawings; and unsized paper, when covered with varnish, may be written on with ink.—*Galignani.*

SWISS CHEESE.

Each parish in Switzerland hires a man, generally from the district of Gruyere, in the Canton of Freyburgh, to take care of the herd and make the cheese; one cheeseman, one pressman or assistant, and one cowherd, are considered necessary for every forty cows. The owners of the cows get credit in a book for the quantity of milk given by each cow daily. The cheeseman and his assistants milk the cows, put the milk all together, and make cheese of it; and at the end of the season each owner receives the weight of cheese proportionable to the quantity of milk his cows have delivered. By this co-operative plan, instead of small-sized, unmarketable cheeses, which each owner could produce out of his three or four cows' milk, he has the same weight in large, marketable cheeses, superior in quality, because made by people who attend to no other business. The cheeseman and his assistants are paid so much per head of the cows in money or in cheese; or sometimes they hire the cows, and pay the owners in money or cheese. A similar system exists in the Frence Jura.

COTTON CROP OF THE UNITED STATES.

I. Statement and Total Amount for the Year ending 31st August, 1861. II. Production of each State in 1850 and in 1861. III. Per Centage of Production in each State. IV. Export from each Port. V. Consumption in the United States, 1847-1861.

States and Ports.		Bales.	Total. 1861.	1860.	1859.	1858.
LOUISIANA.						
Export from New-Orleans—						
To foreign ports,	1,788,678					
To coastwise ports,	132,179					
Burnt at New-Orleans,	8,276					
Stock, 1st September, 1861,	10,118					
		1,929,246				
Deduct—						
Received from Mobile,	48,270					
Received from Montgomery, &c.,	11,551					
Received from Florida,	13,279					
Received from Texas,	80,618					
Stock, 1st September, 1860,	73,934					
		177,647				
ALABAMA.			1,751,599	2,139,425	1,669,274	1,576,409
Export from Mobile—						
To foreign ports,	456,421					
To coastwise ports,	127,574					
Manufactured in Mobile, (est.,)	2,000					
Stock, 1st September, 1861,	2,481					
		588,476				
Deduct stock, 1st September, 1860,		41,682				
			546,794	843,012	704,406	522,864
TEXAS.						
Export from Galveston, &c.—						
To foreign ports,	63,209					
To coastwise ports,	84,254					
Stock, 1st September, 1861,	452					
		147,915				
Deduct stock, 1st September, 1860,		3,168				
			144,747	252,424	192,062	145,286
FLORIDA.						
Exp. from Apalachicola, St. Marks, &c.						
To foreign ports,	28,073					
To coastwise ports,	85,958					
Burnt at St. Marks,	150					
Stock, 1st September, 1861,	7,860					
		122,036				
Deduct stock, 1st September, 1860,		864				
			121,172	192,724	173,484	122,351
GEORGIA.						
Export from Savannah—						
To foreign ports—Uplands,	293,746					
Sea Islands,	8,441					
To coastwise ports—Uplands,	170,572					
Sea Islands,	11,512					
Stock in Savannah, 1st Sept., 1861,	4,102					
Stock in Augusta, &c., 1 Aug., "	5,991					
		494,364				
Deduct—						
Rec'd from Florida—Sea Islands,	1,033					
Uplands,	6,188					
Stock in Savannah, 1st Sept., 1860,	4,307					
Stock in Augusta, &c., 1 " "	5,252					
		16,780				
SOUTH CAROLINA.			477,584	525,219	475,788	282,973
Exp. from Charleston & Georgetown,						
To foreign ports—Uplands,	199,845					
Sea Islands,	15,043					
To coastwise ports—Uplands,	121,668					
Sea Islands,	8,355					

COTTON CROP OF 1858—1861.—(*Continued.*)

States and Ports.	Bales.		Total.			
			1861.	1860.	1859.	1858.
Burnt at Charleston,.....	564					
Stock in Charleston, 1 Sept., 1861,	2,899					
		347,869				
Deduct—						
Received from Florida and Savannah—Sea Islands,.....	255					
Uplands,.....	2,378					
Stock in Charleston, 1 Sept., 1860,	8,897					
		11,580				
North Carolina.			336,289	510,109	480,653	406,251
Export—						
To foreign ports,.....	195					
To coastwise ports, ...	56,100					
			56,295	41,194	87,482	23,999
Virginia.						
Export—						
To foreign ports,.....	810					
To coastwise ports, ...	61,129					
Manufactured, (taken from ports,)	16,998					
Stock, 1st September, 1861,.....	2,000					
		80,932				
Deduct stock, 1st September, 1860,.....		2,800				
			78,132	56,987	33,011	24,705
Tennessee, &c.						
Shipments from Memphis,.....	369,857					
" " Nashville,.....	16,471					
" " Columbus and Hickman, Ky.,.....	5,500					
Stock, 1st September, 1861,.....	1,671					
		393,499				
Deduct—						
Shipments to New-Orleans, ...	196,866					
Manufactured on the Ohio, &c.,.	52,000					
Stock, 1st September, 1860,.....	1,709					
		250,075				
			143,424	108,676	85,321	9,634
Total crop of the United States, ...			3,656,086	4,669,770	3,851,481	3,113,963

Decrease, from crop of 1860, 1,013,684 bales; 1859, 195,395 bales. Increase over crop of 1858, 542,124 bales.

Export of Cotton to Foreign Ports,

From September 1, 1860, *to August* 31, 1861.

From	To Great Britain.	To France.	To North of Europe.	Other Foreign Ports.	Total.
New-Orleans, La.,.....bales,	1,159,848	388,925	122,042	113,858	1,783,673
Mobile, Ala.....	340,845	90,429	6,601	12,546	456,421
Galveston, Tex.,.....	47,229	3,640	12,815	25	63,909
Florida,.....	27,140	....	933	....	28,073
Savannah, Ga.,.....	282,994	10,061	6,165	2,967	302,187
Charleston, S. C.,.....	186,513	29,886	24,401	23,568	214,368
Virginia,.....	810	...	....	....	810
North Carolina,.....	144	....	....	51	195
New-York,.....	158,415	49,122	35,197	5,315	248,049
Baltimore,.....	975	....	2,488	87	3,545
Philadelphia,.....	3,798	....	....	....	3,798
Boston,.....	17,019	....	6,113	93	23,225
Grand total,.....	2,175,225	578,063	216,250	158,080	3,127,568
Total last year,.....	2,669,432	589,587	295,072	220,082	3,774,173
Decrease,.....	494,207	11,524	78,822	62,052	646,605

Comparative Crop Statement.

From the N. Y. Shipping and Commercial List.

	Bales.		*Bales.*		*Bales.*		*Bales.*
1860-1,.....	3,656,086	1851-2,.....	3,015,029	1842-3,.....	2,378,875	1833-4,.....	1,205,394
1859-60,.....	4,669,770	1850-1,.....	2,355,257	1841-2,.....	1,683,574	1832-3,.....	1,070,438
1858-9,.....	3,851,481	1849-50,.....	2,096,706	1840-1,.....	1,634,945	1831-2,.....	987,477
1857-8,.....	3,113,962	1848-9,.....	2,728,596	1839-40,.....	2,177,835	1830-1,.....	1,038,848
1856-7,.....	2,939,519	1847-8,.....	2,347,634	1838-9,.....	1,360,532	1829-30,.....	976,845
1855-6,.....	3,527,345	1846-7,.....	1,778,651	1837-8,.....	1,801,497	1828-9,.....	870,415
1854-5,.....	2,847,339	1845-6,.....	2,100,537	1836-7,.....	1,422,930	1827-8,.....	727,598
1853-4,.....	2,930,027	1844-5,.....	2,394,503	1835-6,.....	1,360,725	1826-7,.....	957,281
1852-3,.....	3,262,882	1843-4,.....	2,030,409	1834-5,.....	1,254,328	1825-6,.....	720,027

Consumption in the United States, 1861.

Total crop of the United States as before stated,.....bales,			3,656,086
Add stocks on hand at the commencement of the year, 1st Sept., 1860:			
In the Southern ports,.....		142,613	
In the Northern ports,.....		85,095	
			227,708
Makes a supply of.....			3,883,794
Deduct therefrom—			
The export to foreign ports,.....	3,127,568		
Less, foreign included,.....	701		
		3,126,867	
Stocks on hand, 1st September, 1861:			
In the Southern ports,.....	87,574		
In the Northern ports,.....	45,618		
		33,187	
Burnt at New-Orleans, St. Marks, Charleston and Philadelphia,.	4,390		
Manufactured in Virginia and Mobile,.....	18,998		
		23,388	
			3,283,437
Taken for home use north of Virginia,.....bales,			650,357
Taken for home use in Virginia and South and West of Virginia,..... "			193,383
Total consumed in the United States, (including burnt at the ports,) 1860-61,... "			843,740

Estimate of the amount of cotton consumed the past year in the States South and West of Virginia, and not included in the receipts at the ports. Thus:

	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
North Carolina, bales,.	20,000 ..	18,500 ..	22,000 ..	25,000 ..	26,000 ..	29,000 ..	30,000 ..	33,000
South Carolina,.....	12,000 ..	10,500 ..	15,000 ..	17,000 ..	18,000 ..	20,000 ..	21,000 ..	24,000
Georgia,.....	23,000 ..	20,500 ..	25,000 ..	23,000 ..	24,000 ..	26,000 ..	28,000 ..	32,000
Alabama,.....	6,000 ..	5,500 ..	6,500 ..	5,000 ..	8,000 ..	10,000 ..	11,000 ..	12,000
Tennessee,.....	6,000 ..	4,000 ..	7,000 ..	9,000 ..	10,000 ..	13,000 ..	15,000 ..	17,000
On the Ohio, &c.,.....	38,000 ..	26,000 ..	42,000 ..	38,000 ..	39,000 ..	45,000 ..	49,000 ..	52,000
Total to Sept. 1, bales,	105,000	85,000	117,500	117,000	125,000	143,000	154,000	170,000

To which, if we add (for the past year) the stocks in the interior towns 1st September, (say 6,200 bales,) the quantity detained in the interior, (say 25,000 bales,) and that lost on its way to market, (9,000 bales,) to the crop as given above, received at the shipping ports, the aggregate will show, as near as may be, the amount *raised* in the United States the

past season—say, in round numbers, 3,866,000 bales, (after deducting 300 bales *new crop* received this year to 1st ult.,) against

	Bales.		*Bales.*		*Bales.*		*Bales.*
1860,	4,805,800	1857,	3,014,000	1854,	3,000,000	1851,	2,450,000
1859,	4,017,000	1856,	3,385,000	1853,	3,360,000	1850,	2,212,000
1858,	3,247,000	1855,	3,186,000	1852,	3,100,000	1849,	2,840,000

The quantity of *new* cotton received at the shipping ports to 1st September was, in

	Bales.		*Bales.*		*Bales.*		*Bales.*
1861,	300	1854,	1,890	1847,	1,121	1840,	30,000
1860,	51,600	1853,	6,716	1846,	200	1839,	no account.
1859,	12,869	1852,	5,125	1845,	7,500	1838,	"
1858,	8,031	1851,	3,200	1844,	7,500	1837,	"
1857,	100	1850,	255	1843,	300	1836,	9,702
1856,	1,800	1849,	575	1842,	3,000	1835,	3,424
1855,	26,079	1848,	3,000	1841,	32,000	1834,	small.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE AMOUNT OF COTTON CONSUMED YEARLY IN THE UNITED STATES, FROM 1847 TO 1861.

Year.	*North of Virginia.*	*Elsewhere.*	*Total, United States.*	*Foreign export and stock.*	*Total crop.*
	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
1847–8,	523,892	92,152	616,044	1,731,590	2,347,634
1848–9,	504,143	138,342	642,485	2,086,111	2,728,596
1849–50,	476,486	137,012	613,498	1,483,208	2,096,706
1850–1,	386,429	99,185	485,614	1,869,643	2,355,257
1851–2,	588,322	111,281	699,603	2,315,426	3,015,029
1852–3,	650,393	153,332	803,725	2,459,157	3,262,882
1853–4,	592,284	144,952	737,236	2,192,791	2,930,027
1854–5,	571,117	135,295	706,412	2,140,927	2,847,339
1855–6,	633,027	137,712	770,739	2,757,106	3,527,845
1856–7,	665,718	154,218	819,936	2,119,583	2,939,519
1857–8,	452,185	143,377	595,562	2,518,400	3,113,962
1858–9,	760,218	167,433	927,651	2,923,830	3,851,481
1859–60,	786,521	185,522	972,043	3,677,727	4,669,770
1860–1,	650,357	193,383	843,740	2,812,346	3,656,086

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE PRODUCTION OF COTTON IN THE UNITED STATES FOR THE YEARS 1860–61 AND 1849–50, AND PER CENTAGE OF EACH STATE AT THOSE PERIODS.

	1860-61.		1849-50.	
	Bales.	*Per centage.*	*Bales.*	*Per centage.*
Louisiana,	1,751,599	47.90	178,737	7.24
Alabama,	546,794	14.95	564,429	22.87
Texas,	144,747	3.96	57,596	2.33
Florida,	121,172	3.31	45,131	1.83
Georgia,	477,584	13.06	499,091	20.22
South Carolina,	336,339	9.20	300,901	12.19
North Carolina,	56,295	1.54	73,849	2.99
Virginia,	78,132	2.13	3,947	.16
Tennessee,	143,424	3.95	194,532	7.88
Mississippi,	....	....	484,293	19.62
Arkansas,	....	....	65,346	2.64
Kentucky and Indiana,	....	....	772	.03
Bales,	3,656,086	100.	2,468,624	100.

There is an apparent discrepancy in this statement, in the omission of the States of Mississippi and Arkansas as producers of cotton in the year 1860–61. This arises from the fact that neither has a seaport through which to export their crop to foreign countries and to domestic ports. Hence, it will be found that, ordinarily, all the cotton of Arkansas, and nearly all of the State of Mississippi, is distributed *via* New-Orleans. Some portions of Mississippi cotton are shipped to Mobile, which is the second port in importance in the United States as a cotton-receiving and exporting point. From an official "*Statement of the Products and Taxable Property of Louisiana*," in 1859, it appears that cotton is not ordinarily the most valuable crop of that State. At the prices prevailing during the past twelve months (10 @ 22 cts.) it was equal to the sugar crop in aggregate value. The main products of that State, in 1859, were as follow, and, at prices of 1860–61, would result thus:

Sugar,.....	292,780 hhds.,	..	Value, $100	per hhd.,	..	$29,278,000
Cotton,.....	499,835 bales,	..	" 60	per bale,	..	30,000,000
Molasses,.....	422,054 bbls.,	..	"		..	6,000,000
Corn,.....	13,127,043 bushels,	..	" 40 cts.	per bushel,	..	5,250,000

Owing to the unsettled state of the country, and the absence of our usual mail facilities, our labor has been prosecuted with more difficulty, and less satisfaction to ourselves, than ever before, but we take pleasure in stating, that owing to a combination of favorable circumstances, we are, with a few unimportant exceptions, enabled to present a statement which, we believe, in all its leading items, to approximate exactness, and one which, for all practical purposes, may be considered reliable. Some of the minor details usually given in our statement are of necessity omitted, owing to the causes alluded to above, and some others are less complete than we could wish, but we feel assured that the statement, as a whole, will be found very nearly correct. It is well known that, owing to the disturbed state of the Southern section of the country, the commerce in cotton was hurried to a close some two months or more earlier than usual, and the results now given were more or less correctly known a month or two ago. It will be well, however, to observe here, that our former (weekly) tables included as receipts *all* the shipments from Memphis, but to arrive at the commercial crop of the country, we have, as usual, deducted the amount consumed on the Ohio, &c., estimated, by good judges, at 52,000 bales, and, on this account, the aggregate crop will now appear less than was previously supposed it would be. The statement, however, must speak for itself; it is the best we could make, considering the serious embarrassments under which we have labored.

It may be well to observe, that the preceding statement of the crop is that of the United States, *as a whole*, and does not purport to be the crops of the *States*, though the shipments, stocks, &c., are necessarily arranged under the different leading shipping ports or States, as the case may be.—*N. Y. Shipping List.*

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES TARIFF.

I. Tariff of March, 1861. II. Method of Levy for Protection. III. Failure as a Revenue Measure. IV. Diminished Consumption. V. Decline in Importations. VI. Monthly Customs, Port of New-York. VII. Congressional Discussion. VIII. Outbreak of War. IX. Extra Session. X. Free Articles Taxed. XI. Tea and Coffee. XII. Estimated Revenue. XIII. Northern Consumption. XIV. Yield of the three Tariffs. XV. Bonded Goods. XVI. Exports of the Country. XVII. Return of Specie. XVIII. Grain Exports—Cotton Imports—Effect of Loan upon Customs—Probable Change.

The tables (pp. 506, 507) embrace every article enumerated in the tariff act of August 5th, 1861, with the rate of duty levied on each; to which we add the comparative rates according to the tariffs of 1842, 1846, 1857 and March, 1861. The whole will show at one glance the changes at these dates on these articles.

In our number for April last we brought down the history of the national tariffs passed since the formation of the federal government to the enactment of March, 1861, which had been passed hastily amid the extraordinary excitement that attended the close of the 36th Congress. That tariff restored the rates of duties to the highest protective rates for the leading manufactures. It changed the mode of levying the duties, and introduced many complications in their application. It made charges on long lists of articles previously free, generally on the principle of light taxes upon raw or partly manufactured articles, and increasing the rate in proportion to the degree in which the imported article was supposed to rival similar articles of domestic production. Such a principle, although it gratified the views of those who held that home manufactures should be protected by the direct interference of the government, was not of a nature to improve the revenues, since the domestic articles would, by reason of the increased tax, more readily exclude the foreign one from the markets, thus cutting off the taxed article from the service of the revenue. In a similar manner, tea, coffee and cocoa, which are not United States productions, were left free of duty, while sugar, which has a domestic rival, was charged with a specific duty, but of a lower equivalent than the *ad valorem* of the former tariff. The tariff, as a whole, was calculated to increase the public revenue in speculative seasons, but to have a contrary effect when, from general causes, commerce was depressed and want of confidence bore heavily upon those circulating credits which are, in the United States, the machinery of business. This had been the case since the November election had been followed by political events of a serious nature. The commercial effect of those events was to cause an immediate decline in importations, and this decline showed itself, as a consequence, in the falling off in the customs revenue, although the tariff remained unaltered up to the first of April, when the new tariff of March went into operation. The following table shows the monthly customs receipts at the port of New-York, where two-thirds of the whole federal revenue are collected, during the two years of the operation of the tariff of 1857 and the first quarter of the year 1861:

	1859.	1860.	1861.	
January,.....	$ 3,478,471 ..	$ 3,899,166 ..	$ 2,050,202	
February,.....	3,328,688 ..	3,378,043 ..	2,528,736	Tariff of 1857.
March,.....	3,164,011 ..	3,477,545 ..	2,489,926	
April,.....	3,212,060 ..	2,444,268 ..	1,643,262	" March, 1861.
May,.....	4,014,520 ..	2,466,463 ..	979,145	
June,.....	3,314,429 ..	2,024,193 ..	1,894,064	
July,.....	4,851,246 ..	4,504,066 ..	2,069,591	
August,.....	4,243,010 ..	4,496,243 ..	1,558,824	" August 5.
September,....	2,908,506 ..	3,038,803 ..	1,645,294	
October,.....	2,818,750 ..	2,632,078 ..	....	
November,.....	2,157,154 ..	1,798,749 ..	....	
December,.....	2,843,388 ..	1,171,826 ..	....	
	$ 39,834,233 ..	$ 35,431,443 ..	....	

The political events of November, 1860, had an immediate effect upon the revenue, which declined to less than half that of the corresponding months of the previous year.

The discussion of the tariff question during the session naturally led to larger importations as a precaution against the higher duties threatened in that discussion, and the receipts in February and March, although far behind those of the corresponding months in 1860, were larger than during the prevalence of the panic in November and December. With the first of April the tariff of March went into operation, but almost simultaneously with its action the war broke out and destroyed what remained of confidence, thereby curtailing business and again reducing the yield of the tariff, while the necessities of the war required increased revenues. When Congress met, under these circumstances, the revision of the tariff was again brought to its notice, and efforts were made to reduce those more strictly protective imposts which, in the altered state of the national commerce, assumed a prohibitive action, and were therefore detrimental to the great object of revenue. These efforts were, however, without success. The rates were not modified, but many important articles, previously in the free list, were subjected to tax. Of these, coffee and tea were the most promising for revenue. Brown sugar was raised from three-fourths of a cent per pound to two cents per pound, and molasses from two to five cents per gallon. These three changes, with that in relation to cocoa, were calculated to give a large revenue. The quantities and values imported in 1860, with the rate and amount of duty, were as follow, compared with the revenue that the new act would draw from the same quantities:

	1860.				1861.	
			Duties.		Duties.	
	Quantity.	*Value.*	*Rate.*	*Amount.*	*Rate.*	*Amount.*
Tea,..... lb.	30,593,106	$ 7,306,916	free.	....	15 cts.	$ 4,588,960
Coffee,.....	200,998,751	25,063,333	"	....	4 "	8,039,950
Cocoa,.....	3,186,721	389,839	4 cts.	$ 15,593	3 "	127,468
Sugar, brown,..	692,944,872	30,471,302	24 "	7,313,112	2 "	13,858,897
" clayed,..	1,035,639	78,229	" "	18,774	2½ "	2,589,097
" loaf, &c.,.	771,334	8,087	" "	1,941	4 "	29,853
" candy,...	41,598	1,243	" "	298	6 "	2,495
" syrup,...	86,312	19,717	" "	4,732	2 "	1,726
Molasses,.. gall.	30,922,633	5,062,850	" "	1,215,084	5 "	1,546,131
		$ 8,569,534				$ 30,974,577

The quantities imported in 1860 were for the whole Union, and, if estimated for the North only, must be reduced in the ratio of forty per cent. for the articles of tea, coffee and cocoa. In the case of sugar, however, the quantities imported are not more than half of the whole consumption of the Union, the remainder being made up from the Louisiana production. Hence, the quantities of sugar imported may be assumed to be the usual Northern supply. All these articles, however, encounter a diminished demand, by reason of that general economy which flows from the depression of general industry; and, instead of deriving, as was estimated, $35,000,000 from the amended tariff and $20,000,000 from the tax on tea, coffee and sugar, the prospect is that the whole tariff for the present fiscal year will not give $20,000,000.

If the dutiable imports are taken for three periods of the present year, embracing the three tariffs, the results are as follows:

	Imports.	*Duties.*	*Average.*
Jan. 1 to April 1, 3 mos., tariff '57,.....	$36,024,451 ..	$7,068,864 ..	19¼ per cent.
April 1 to Aug. 5, 4 " " '61,.....	25,164,019 ..	6,586,062 ..	26⅛ "
Aug. to Sept., 2 " " Aug.,'61,	12,324,147 ..	3,204,218 ..	26 "

These figures give for result that the old tariff yielded less than twenty per cent. in the last three months of its operation, while that of March, 1861, gave but twenty-six and one-eighth per cent. upon the imports, because the articles most heavily taxed were imported in a smaller ratio. The new tariff gives no higher average rate of taxes on dutiable imports, for the reason, that in the first two months of its operation it hardly became effective in its full force. The large quantities of goods in bond, and which were imported freely to come in under the old rates, did not feel the new taxes, and new importations have been comparatively very small. The new law provides that goods can remain in bond no longer than three months without paying duties, under a penalty of an addition of twenty-five per cent. to the duty. The amount of goods in bond at the close of July, or when the new tariff went into effect, was, in round numbers, $23,000,000, and has since not much diminished. The importations that now take place are under the new tariff.

It appears, however, that, for three months of the fiscal year 1862, which begins July 1, already elapsed, the customs revenues have been but $5,273,809, which would give for the year $21,084,000, or $34,000,000 short of the official estimate. This result cannot be ascribed to the higher taxes, since, as the table demonstrates, the average import is hardly more than under the old one, and also because it has yet not come fully into operation. The great depression of general business, arising from the economy of the people, is the main cause of the lessened importations and smaller revenues. The commerce of the fiscal year 1862 must undergo a very great change in respect to exports, which, in ordinary years, are the measure of the importations from which the customs revenues are derived. The exports of 1860 were as follows:

	1860.	1861.	1862. (Estimate.)
Produce now blockaded,.....	$236,905,881 ..	$210,111,000 ..	nil.
Produce and manufactures,.....	79,336,542 ..	129,500,000 ..	$130,000,000
Specie,.....	56,946,851 ..	23,771,877 ..	nil.
Total exports,.....	$373,189,274 ..	$363,382,877 ..	$130,000,000

In 1860 the proceeds of the large exports returned in the shape of dutiable goods to the extent of $279,872,327, and $82,291,614 in free goods. In 1860 $23,771,877 was exported in specie in the first part of the year. The exports of breadstuffs then becoming large, reaching an excess of $46,000,000 over the previous year, simultaneously with the great decline in importations, $34,076,153 of specie returned into the country, the joint effect of the famine abroad and the political events at home. The new year opens with the new tariff, and also with an export demand for breadstuffs, which, it is hoped, will carry the aggregate exports to a point as high as last year, or $130,000,000.

The cost of exporting grain to Europe this year is somewhat increased by the fact that ships have few return freights. Not only goods come in less quantities, but immigration has been greatly affected. Hence, vessels require the outward-bound grain to pay two freights. The same general circumstances cause exchanges to rule 3 @ 4 per cent. lower than last year. These two unfavorable features are offset, to some extent, by the lowness of prices; but these, in their turn, so lessen the profits of producers as to check the consumption of goods. The favorable features are, that, while the crops are very large, there are no attempts to hold for a speculative rise, but the whole moves freely forward on a cash basis.

It is obvious, that if the whole proceeds of this exportation are received in the shape of dutiable goods, taxed at an average of thirty per cent., the revenue would be $39,000,000; at an average of twenty-six per cent., the rate for the first two months of the new tariff, the amount would be $33,800,000. But the exports may not reach so high a figure, the more readily that prices are much lower than for the corresponding season last year. In other words, more grain is given for the same money, and a considerable portion will be required to pay for free goods. The product of the tariff is, then, dependent upon the value of the exports of which the proceeds return into the country; and the range of the new tariff upon the leading heads of importations is, as compared with the previous tariffs, as follows: (*See next page.*)

The position of the cotton trade, for the moment, is such that no dependence, for revenue, can be placed upon duties imposed upon those manufactures, since the material of manufacture fails as well abroad as at home. The Northern States have been accustomed to manufacture 700,000 bales of cotton, worth $35,000,000. As that material threatens now to run short altogether, a great demand for substitutes must spring up, which may improve the importations of other articles. The aggregate importation cannot, however, exceed the value of the produce exported, without involving such an outward current of specie as will react upon the means of purchase. In the case that the government loan is taken to any extent abroad, that circumstance will supply bills that will give great latitude to the importations, and greatly improve the revenue. It is by no means impossible that considerable sums in stock may be so exported. It would seem to be most probable, that linen, wool and silks, with their mixtures, would, to a considerable extent, supplant cotton, the cheaper article in general use. The demand for British linens might then fairly be increased at the duty charged under the March tariff of twenty-five per cent. on lower qualities.

COMPARATIVE RATES OF DUTY, 1842—1861.

	1842.	1846.	1857.	*March*, 1861.	*August*, 1861.
Acid, tartaric,	20 per cent.	20 per ct.	4 per ct.	10 per cent.	10 cents lb.
Almonds, lb.,	3 cents.	40 per ct.	30 per ct.	2 cents.	4 cents lb.
" shelled, lb.,	3 cents.	40 per ct.	30 per ct.	4 cents.	6 cents lb.
Argol, lb.,	free.	5 per ct.	free.	free.	3 cents lb.
Arrow root,	20 per cent.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	10 per cent.	20 per cent.
Bananas and plantains,	free.	20 per ct.	8 per ct.	10 per cent.	20 per cent.
Bark, Peruvian,	free.	15 per ct.	free.	free.	15 per cent.
Bar lead,	3 cents lb.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	1½ ct. lb.	1½ cent lb.
Brandy, gall.,	$1 00	$1 00	30 per ct.	$1 00	$1 25 gall.
Brimstone, crude, ton,	20 per cent.	15 per ct.	4 per ct.	free.	$3 per ton.
" rolls, ton,	25 per cent.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	20 per cent.	$6 per ton.
Button cloths, silk,	30 per cent.	30 per ct.	24 per ct.	30 per cent.	40 per cent.
Cassia, per lb.,	20 per cent.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	3 cents lb.	10 cents lb.
Cassia buds, per lb.,	20 per cent.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	3 cents lb.	15 cents lb.
Caustic soda,	20 per cent.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	20 per cent.	1 cent lb.
Cayenne pepper, lb.,	10 cents lb.	30 per ct.	4 per ct.	3 cents lb.	6 cents lb.
" ground, lb.,	10 cents lb.	30 per ct.	4 per ct.	4 cents lb.	8 cents lb.
Chicory root, lb.,	free.	free.	free.	free.	1 cent lb.
Chicory, ground, lb.,	20 per cent.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	20 per cent.	2 cents lb.
Chloride of lime,	1 cent lb.	10 per ct.	4 per ct.	10 per cent.	30 cts. 100 lbs.
Chocolate, lb.,	4 cents lb.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	20 per cent.	6 cents lb.
Cinnamon, lb.,	25 cents lb.	30 per ct.	4 per ct.	20 per cent.	20 cents lb.
Cloves, lb.,	8 cents lb.	40 per ct.	4 per ct.	4 cents lb.	8 cents lb.
Cloves, oil of, lb.,	20 per cent.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	20 per cent.	70 cents lb.
Cocoa, lb.,	1 cent lb.	10 per ct.	4 per ct.	free.	3 cents lb.
Cocoa leaves and shells,	20 per cent.	10 per ct.	4 per ct.	free.	2 cents lb.
Cocoa, prepared, lb.,	1 cent lb.	10 per ct.	4 per ct.	free.	3 cents lb.
Coffee, lb.,	free.	free.	free.	free.	4 cents lb.
Copal gum,	15 per cent.	10 per ct.	8 per ct.	10 per cent.	10 cents lb.
Cream Tartar, lb.,	free.	20 per ct.	4 per ct.	free.	6 cents lb.
Currants, lb.,	3 cents lb.	40 per ct.	8 per ct.	2 cents lb.	5 cents lb.
Dates, lb.,	1 cent lb.	40 per ct.	8 per ct.	½ cent lb.	2 cents lb.
Feathers and downs,	25 per cent.	25 per ct.	19 per ct.	20 per cent.	30 per cent.
Figs, lb.,	2 cents lb.	40 per ct.	8 per ct.	3 cents lb.	5 cents lb.
Ginger, preserved, lb.,	2 cents lb.	....	15 per ct.	10 per cent.	30 per cent.
Ginger root, lb.,	2 cents lb.	40 per ct.	15 per ct.	10 per cent.	3 cents lb.
Ginger, ground, lb.,	2 cents lb.	30 per ct.	15 per ct.	10 per cent.	5 cents lb.
Gum copal,	15 per cent.	10 per ct.	8 per ct.	10 per cent.	10 cents lb.
Gunpowder, lb.,	8 cents lb.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	20 per cent.	30 per cent.
Hemp, Manilla, ton,	$25	$25	$19	$15	$25 ton.
Hemp, Russia, ton,	$40	$30	$24	$35	$40 ton.
Hides,	5 per cent.	5 per ct.	4 per ct.	5 per cent.	10 per cent.
India rubber,	free.	10 per ct.	4 per ct.	free.	10 per cent.
—— boots and shoes,	30 per cent.	30 per ct.	24 per ct.	20 per cent.	30 per cent.
Ivory,	free.	5 per ct.	free.	free.	10 per cent.
Ivory, vegetable,	free.	5 per ct.	4 per ct.	free.	10 per cent.
Lead, sheets,	4 cents lb.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	1½ cent lb.	2¼ cents lb.
Lead, pigs and bars,	3 cents lb.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	1 cent lb.	1½ cent lb.
Lead, red, lb.,	4 cents lb.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	1½ cent lb.	2¼ cents lb.
Lead, white, lb.,	4 cents lb.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	1½ cent lb.	2¼ cents lb.
Lime, chloride,	1 cent lb.	10 per ct.	4 per ct.	10 per cent.	30 cts. 100 lbs.
Liquorice, lb.,	25 per cent.	30 per ct.	15 per ct.	3 cents lb.	5 cents lb.
Liquorice root, lb.,	25 per cent.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	free.	1 cent lb.
Leather, sole and bend,	6 cents lb.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	20 per cent.	30 per cent.

	1842.	1846.	1857.	*March*, 1861.	*August*, 1861.
Lemons,	20 per cent.	20 per ct.	8 per ct.	10 per cent.	20 per cent.
Limes,	20 per cent.	20 per ct.	8 per ct.	10 per cent.	20 per cent.
Mace, lb.,	50 cents.	40 per ct.	4 per ct.	15 cents lb.	25 cents lb.
Manilla hemp, ton,	$25	$25	$19	$15	$25 per ton.
Molasses,	4½ cts. lb.	30 per ct.	24 per ct.	2 cts. gall.	5 cents gall.
Nutmegs, lb.,	80 cents lb.	40 per ct.	4 per ct.	15 per cent.	25 cents lb.
Nuts, lb.,	1 cent lb.	30 per ct.	24 per ct.	1 cent lb.	2 cents lb.
Oil of cloves, lb.,	20 per cent.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	20 per cent.	70 cents lb.
Oranges,	20 per cent.	20 per ct.	8 per ct.	10 per cent.	20 per cent.
Peruvian bark,	free.	15 per ct.	free.	free.	15 per cent.
Pepper, Cayenne, lb.,	10 cents lb.	30 per ct.	4 per ct.	3 cents lb.	6 cents lb.
Pepper, ground, lb.,	10 cents lb.	30 per ct.	4 per ct.	4 cents lb.	8 cents lb.
Pig lead,	3 cents lb.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	1 cent lb.	1½ cent lb.
Pimento, lb.,	5 cents lb.	40 per ct.	30 per ct.	2 cents lb.	6 cents lb.
Plantains,	free.	20 per ct.	8 per ct.	10 per cent.	20 per cent.
Plums, lb.,	25 per cent.	30 per ct.	8 per ct.	1 cent lb.	5 cents lb.
Prunes, lb.,	3 cents lb.	40 per ct.	8 per ct.	2 cents lb.	5 cents lb.
Quinine,	20 per cent.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	30 per cent.	30 per cent.
Rags,	¼ cent lb.	5 per ct.	free.	free.	10 per cent.
Raisins, lb.,	3 cents lb.	40 per ct.	8 per ct.	2 cents lb.	5 cents lb.
Red lead, lb.,	4 cents lb.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	1½ cent lb.	2½ cents lb.
Rochelle salts, lb.,	20 per cent.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	20 per cent.	10 cents lb.
Russia hemp, ton,	$40	$30	$24	$35	$40 ton.
Sal Soda,	20 per cent.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	20 per cent.	½ cent lb.
Saltpetre, crude, lb.,	free.	5 per ct.	4 per ct.	free.	1 cent lb.
Saltpetre, refined, lb.,	2 cents lb.	10 per ct.	8 per ct.	10 per cent.	2 cents lb.
Salt, sacks,	8 cts. bush.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	6 cts. bush.	18 cts. 100 lbs.
Salt, in bulk,	8 cts. bush.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	4 cts. bush.	12 cts. 100 lbs.
Salts, Rochelle, lb.,	20 per cent.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	20 per cent.	10 cents lb.
Sewing silk,	$2 lb.	30 per ct.	24 per ct.	30 per cent.	40 per cent.
Silk velvet, under $3 yd.,	$2 50 lb.	25 per ct.	19 per ct.	20 per cent.	35 per cent.
Silk velvet, over $3 yd.,	$2 50 lb.	25 per ct.	19 per ct.	30 per cent.	40 per cent.
Silk, under $1 yard,	$2 50 lb.	25 per ct.	19 per ct.	20 per cent.	30 per cent.
Silk, over $1 yard,	$2 50 lb.	25 per ct.	19 per ct.	30 per cent.	40 per cent.
Silks, floss,	25 per cent.	25 per ct.	19 per ct.	20 per cent.	30 per cent.
Silks, tram,	50 cents lb.	15 per ct.	12 per ct.	15 per cent.	25 per cent.
Silk ribbons, galloons, &c.	30 per cent.	30 per ct.	24 per ct.	30 per cent.	40 per cent.
Silk fringes, laces, &c.,	$2 50 lb.	25 per ct.	19 per ct.	30 per cent.	40 per cent.
Soda, bicarbon., 100 lbs.,	20 per cent.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	20 per cent.	1 cent lb.
Soda, sal, lb.,	20 per cent.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	20 per cent.	½ cent lb.
Soda, caustic,	20 per cent.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	20 per cent.	1 cent lb.
Spirits turpentine, gall.,	10 cents.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	10 cts. gall.	10 cents gall.
Spirits, gall.,	60 cents.	100 per ct.	30 per ct.	40 cents.	50 cents gall.
Sugar, brown, lb.,	2½ cents.	30 per ct.	24 per ct.	¾ cents lb.	2 cents lb.
Sugar, clayed, lb.,	2½ cents.	30 per ct.	24 per ct.	¾ cents lb.	2½ cents lb.
Sugar, refined, lb.,	6 cents.	30 per ct.	24 per ct.	4 cents.	4 cents lb.
Sugar, syrup of, lb.,	2½ cents.	30 per ct.	24 per ct.	¾ cent lb.	2 cents lb.
Sugar candy, lb.,	6 cents.	30 per ct.	24 per ct.	4 cents lb.	6 cents lb.
Tartar emetic, lb.,	20 per cent.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	20 per cent.	10 cents lb.
Teas, lb.,	free.	free.	free.	free.	15 cents lb.
Turpentine, spirits, gall.,	10 cents.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	10 cts. gall.	10 cents gall.
Vegetable ivory,	free.	5 per ct.	4 per ct.	free.	10 per cent.
Velvets, silk, under $3,	$2 50 lb.	25 per ct.	19 per ct.	20 per cent.	35 per cent.
Velvets, silk, over $3,	$2 50 lb.	25 per ct.	19 per ct.	30 per cent.	40 per cent.
White lead,	4 cents lb.	20 per ct.	15 per ct.	1½ cts. lb.	2½ cents lb.
Wines, gall.,	6 @ 60 cts.	40 per ct.	30 per ct.	40 per cent.	50 per cent.

DUTIES LEVIED BY EACH GENERAL TARIFF OF THE UNITED STATES, SINCE THE FORMATION OF THE GOVERNMENT, UPON ELEVEN LEADING HEADS OF IMPORTS.

		Distilled Spirits.	*Glass.*	*China.*	*Sugar.*	*Coffee.*	*Pig Iron.*	*Manufactured Iron.*	*Bar Rolled Iron.*	*Clothing.*	*Cottons.*	*Woollens.*
July 4,	1789	gallon, 10 c.	10 p. c.	10 p. c.	1 c. lb.	2½ c. lb.	5 p. c.	5 p. c.	5 p. c.	7½ p. c.	5 p. c.	5 p. c.
August 10,	1790	" 15 "	12½ "	12½ "	1½ "	4 "	5 "	7½ "	7½ "	7½ "	7½ "	7½ "
May 2,	1792	" 28 "	15 "	15 "	1½ "	4 "	10 "	10 "	10 "	10 "	10 "	10 "
June 7,	1794	" 28 "	20 "	15 "	1½ "	4 "	15 "	15 "	15 "	10 "	15 "	15 "
March 3,	1797	" 29 "	20 "	15 "	2½ "	5 "	15 "	15 "	15 "	10 "	17½ "	15 "
March 26,	1804	" 29 "	22½ "	17½ "	2½ "	5 "	17½ "	17½ "	17½ "	12½ "	20 "	17½ "
July 1, 1812, all duties doubled.		" 60 "	40 "	30 "	5 "	10 "	30 "	30 "	30 "	25 "	40 "	30 "
April 27,	1816	" 42 "	20 "	20 "	3 "	5 "	20 "	20 "	$30 ton.	30 "	25 "	25 "
May 22,	1824	" 42 "	30 & 3 c. lb.	20 "	3 "	5 "	$10 ton.	25 "	$30 "	30 "	25 "	20 "
May 19,	1828	" 57 "	30 " 3 "	20 "	3 "	5 "	$12½ "	25 "	$36 "	50 "	25 "	45 "
July 14,	1832	" 57 "	30 " 3 "	20 "	2½ "	free.	$10 "	25 "	$30 "	50 "	25 "	50 "
March 2,	1833*											
September 11,	1841	p. c. 20	20 p. c.	20 "	20 p. c.	"	20 p. c.	20 "	20 p. c.	20 "	20 "	20 "
August 30,	1842	gallon, 60 "	30 & 6 c. lb.	30 "	2½ c. lb.	"	$9 ton.	30 "	$25 ton.	50 "	30 "	40 "
August 6,	1846	p. c. 100	40 p. c.	30 "	30 p. c.	"	30 p. c.	30 "	30 p. c.	30 "	25 "	30 "
March 3,	1857	" 30	30 "	24 "	24 "	"	24 "	24 "	24 "	24 "	19 "	24 "
March 2,	1861	gallon, 40 "	30 "	30 "	¼ c. lb.	"	$6 ton.	30 "	$15 ton.	30 "	30 "	25 & 12 c. lb.
August 5,	1861	" 50 "	30 "	30 "	2 "	4 c. lb.	$6 "	30 "	$15 "	30 "	30 "	25 & 12 "

* Where the duty exceeds 20 per cent., the excess to be reduced biennially until the excess should cease, 1842.

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE AND BOARDS OF TRADE.

Monthly Meeting of the Chamber of Commerce, New-York.

THE monthly meeting of the New-York Chamber of Commerce was held Thursday, October 3d, 1861. PELATIAH PERIT, Esq., president, in the chair. Present, Messrs. PHELPS and LOW, vice-presidents, and about forty members.

The following gentlemen, who were nominated September 5th, were this day elected members: JOHN JACOB ASTOR, JR., JONATHAN H. RANSOM, EDWARD MOTT ROBINSON, SELAH VAN DUZER, EDWARD WILLETS.

Mr. ROYAL PHELPS said that as Mr. ASTOR was a personal friend—a gentleman whom they would all regard as an acquisition to the Chamber—he considered the presentation of his name a favorable opportunity to raise the inquiry, how the Chamber was to be constituted—whether of respectable citizens of New-York in general, or of merchants? Gentlemen were constantly elected who had no connection whatever with the commerce of New-York, and it had been a frequent subject of remark. He felt assured Mr. ASTOR would not take offence at his embracing the opportunity to make an objection that might hereafter be a shield between the Chamber and such nominations.

Mr. P. M. WETMORE, while entirely concurring in the views expressed by Mr. PHELPS, considered that Mr. ASTOR could not be said to have no connection with the commerce of New-York. As a large capitalist, whose money was invested, and became the foundation for extensive commercial transactions, he was very intimately connected with commerce. He was glad, however, that the question was raised; and, with the intention of himself bringing up the subject, he had cut a paragraph from the *Evening Post*, stating that Mr. G. W. SMITH, late Street Commissioner of this city, had received a commission in the rebel army. This Mr. SMITH had been elected a member of the Chamber, although having no connection whatever with commerce.

The Secretary read from the by-laws showing that those "whose vocations were connected with the trade of the country" were embraced as eligible, viz.:

"No persons can be admitted members of this corporation but merchants and others, residents of this and contiguous States, whose avocations are connected with the trade and commerce of the country."

Mr. QUACKENBUSH said that Mr. ASTOR, properly speaking, was not a merchant. Commerce, in a large sense, took in financial transactions, such as banking, exchange, brokerage, buying and selling whatever was to be sold. Mr. ASTOR did not come under that category, so far as he knew, being engaged only in investing his own revenues. But under the sentence read from the by-laws he was eligible. WM. B. ASTOR, his father, was a member.

Mr. PHELPS withdrew his objection, which he had made solely for the purpose of stopping the further election of men not merchants.

Mr. A. C. RICHARDS, from the committee on procuring medals for

presentation to the soldiers at Forts Sumter and Pickens, reported that $1,500 would be required to supply the 168 medals.

A subscription list, headed by Mr. PHELPS for $100, was immediately opened, and the sum of eight hundred dollars subscribed.

Mr. R. B. MINTURN was re-elected a member of the Arbitration Committee for the term of twelve months.

Mr. BLUNT thought that some action should be taken in the case of runaway members. He moved that the names of ISAAC V. FOWLER, M. LOVELL and G. W. SMITH, who had absconded, be stricken from the roll of members, which was adopted.

On motion of Mr. GEORGE OPDYKE, the Executive Committee were requested to present three names for trustees of the Nautical School, established by the legislature, for approval of the Chamber at its next meeting. (This law was printed in the September No. of the MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE, pp. 310, 311.)

A letter was received from Prof. FRANCIS LIEBER, of Columbia College, thanking the Chamber for his election as honorary member.

Mr. PROSPER M. WETMORE offered the following:

Resolved, That the Executive Committee be instructed to prepare and submit, at the next meeting of the Chamber, a memorial to the Congress of the United States, asking that authority be granted to the Assay Office in this city to coin for the national currency such portion of gold and silver bullion which may be in the Treasury of the United States as the Secretary of the Treasury may direct.

This resolution, Mr. WETMORE said, he based upon a statement of the bullion deposited in the United States Assay Office, New-York, by which it appeared that the total deposits, from October 1, 1860, to September 30, 1861, were—of silver, $2,480,237; of gold, $67,788,158. Bullion transmitted to the United States Mint for coinage, during the same period —of silver, $2,300,126; of gold, $64,855,532.

The cost of transporting the bullion to the Mint at Philadelphia, and returning it, was $71,755; but this was not the only or greatest loss sustained. The loss of time involved by transmitting the bullion to Philadelphia, instead of coining it here, was as four weeks to three days. Again, the risk was enormous. No great loss had yet been sustained; but when they recollected that two millions a week, on the average, went by way of boat to Amboy, and the liability of accidents to steamboats, it would be seen what a risk the government ran; for the loss, if any, would fall, not on the owners nor on the express company, but on government; and it was a very unprofitable kind of insurance, for they receive no premium. He thought the community who furnish government, in its necessity, with seventy per cent. of the coin it had to use, ought to be permitted to furnish the coin from its own Mint, since it had all the power except authority from Congress. He added the following items:

BULLION DEPOSITED, UNITED STATES ASSAY OFFICE, NEW-YORK.

	Silver.	*Gold.*	*Total.*
1860, 4th quarter,	$ 216,472	$ 11,818,605	$ 12,035,077
1861, 1st "	452,118	17,882,427	18,334,545
" 2d "	792,647	21,959,126	22,751,773
" 3d "	1,019,000	16,128,000	17,147,000
Total deposits from October 1, 1860, to September 30, 1861,	$ 2,480,237	$ 67,788,158	$ 70,268,395

BULLION TRANSMITTED TO UNITED STATES MINT FOR COINAGE.

	Silver.	*Gold.*	*Total.*
1860, 4th quarter,.....	$ 101,987 ..	$ 8,772,811 ..	$ 8,874,798
1861, 1st "	496,830 ..	19,484,603 ..	19,981,433
" 2d "	809,367 ..	19,505,400 ..	20,314,767
" 3d "	891,942 ..	17,092,718 ..	17,984,660
	$ 2,300,126 ..	$ 64,855,532 ..	$ 67,155,658

The estimated cost of transportation to and from the Mint—on gold, $64,855; on silver, $6,900—is $71,755. Add to this the loss of time, and the aggregate loss will appear to be about one hundred thousand dollars annually.

The resolution was adopted.

Mr. BLOODGOOD made a brief address, introducing a resolution for the appointment of a committee of three, to take into consideration and report upon a suggestion made by an eminent merchant of New-York.

Mr. BLOODGOOD remarked: While no one can entertain a higher estimate of the influence, the labors and the beneficent measures of the Chamber of Commerce, I am of the opinion that its sphere of usefulness may be greatly enlarged. Its action, though powerful, is not as extended as it might be, and I therefore respectfully suggest at least one method by which its great influence might be increased. Composed of the leading merchants and bankers of New-York, it *sustains* the character which was impressed upon it by its founders and their successors; and, on a careful study of its history, I find that it has been hitherto equal to every emergency of peace or war, of navigation and of commerce.

But I believe there are still many important positions which it might efficiently occupy. I perceive, I think, that it has not entirely fulfilled its high duties, though self-imposed, and that its ability to do good is by no means exhausted. If I may be allowed to express my private opinions on this subject, I would say, that, much as it has done, much remains to do. Thus, if I am rightly informed, the Liverpool Chamber of Commerce exercises an immense influence, not only over commerce itself, but in the details which make it successful, and has, within a few years, by its exertions, elevated that city to the rank of a first-rate port.

This Liverpool Chamber not only interests itself in public questions, but also in their details. They have a clock which tells the true time of day for the shipping; they have signals, daily hoisted, premonitory of the weather, communicated by careful observers at Greenwich, by which the departure of ships is regulated; they look after the magnetic influences which disturb the marine compass, and it is by their interference that the maritime interests of their port are regulated. Your intelligent and efficient secretary has, at my suggestion, written to the officials of that institution for a full explanation of their regulations, their application and their results. I regret they have not reached him in time to be submitted at this meeting.

Be this as it may, the object of my remarks at this time is this: Believing for some time that the Chamber of Commerce had still untried fields to cultivate, I suggested to a friend and relative of mine a measure which he has thus far cordially assented to. This gentleman, of ample means, a retired merchant, to whom, in more ways than one, New-York has been greatly indebted, is the owner of a site in this immediate neigh-

borhood. He owns four large lots between Pine and Cedar streets. On these, at my suggestion, he will erect a structure in marble, in the most substantial manner, and in the finest taste, at his own expense, the upper stories of which shall be principally devoted to the use of the Chamber of Commerce. There will be constructed a large room for general purposes, committee rooms, rooms for a library and marine charts, a hall for the meeting of the Chamber and merchants generally, apartments for a commercial newspaper reading-room, (which, I am informed, can easily be transferred from the Exchange, and for which negotiations can readily be made,) a tower for a clock, an observatory, from which the whole bay and harbor will be visible, and space for the Nautical School which has been created by act of the legislature, and which will fall under the control of the Chamber. He does not require assistance from the Chamber of Commerce to erect these buildings. He will accept only a fair and reasonable rent for his building, and advance the money himself. This expenditure is contemplated to be about $70,000.

It may be said that this is not the time for such an enterprise. But, in my judgment, it is the very time of all times. The proposed edifice can be erected at less cost now than it could have been in our palmy days, or hereafter when our palmy days return. The erection of this building, and the enterprise and sagacity of the Chamber of Commerce, could never be more felicitously displayed than in seizing upon this opportunity.

It is true we are at war with our own brothers, engaged in a distressing family quarrel; but New-York, favored by nature, by Providence and its own intrinsic merit, stands in all its magnificent proportions undisturbed. To the merchants, bankers and people of New-York the country owes this day its proud position and its real safety. But for them, no armies would have crowded the seat of war; but for them, rebellion this moment would be rampant; and when this controversy is ended, and when the historian makes his record of its events, no such city and no such people will have ever received or deserved so much honor. Ours is a case of peculiar character. It has no parallel. A good cause may be sometimes overthrown for want of strength; but a good cause, with a just quarrel and a superior force, never yet failed and never can.

I look forward confidently to the restoration of the Union, the supremacy of the Constitution, and a return to their allegiance of that mistaken, cheated and abused population of the South, who have been led by demagogues into a fratricidal contest, which must end in their utter ruin if persisted in, unless they accept again our brotherly care. And this I believe they will do.

No matter, then, about the condition of things elsewhere, when we are all right here. The Chamber of Commerce has a destiny which has survived two wars, and will survive this. Art, philanthropy, patriotism, commerce cannot be extinguished by any difficulties of the hour, and therefore we are safe in extending our benevolent action to reach posterity, who will admire our persistence.

It is, therefore, no objection to my proposition that war exists. Commerce goes on. I am surprised to learn, from this morning's papers, that our trade was never more active in this port than at this moment. More entries and departures than were ever known; more exports than imports, and no falling off in them. If Cotton has ceased to be King, I am happy to find that Corn has ascended the throne, and that his dynasty is not to

be disturbed for the present. In a French paper I received yesterday, I find it stated that the grain crop of France is one-third less this year than last; and that country has no where else to look for a supply than the Northern and Western United States. We may congratulate ourselves, therefore, on the stability of our commerce, in spite of all the obstacles which foreign jealousy has placed in our path.

I see, therefore, no reason why the Chamber of Commerce may not proceed in its honorable course, nor why it should not seek every favorable opportunity to extend its influence, nor why such patriotic and, I may say, disinterested offers to increase its usefulness should be unnoticed. The Chambers of Commerce in Cincinnati and St. Louis, I am told, are conducted on a superior scale, though they have no bays in which the navies of the world may anchor, no healthful "salt sea" waves to break upon their shores. Here is an opportunity, then, that has never occurred before to us, and may never occur again. I therefore respectfully suggest that a special committee be appointed, of which I hope our experienced and liberal-minded president may be chairman, to take into consideration the suggestion now made, in good faith for myself and the eminent citizen whose name I am ready to give if called upon to do so. If the plan is adopted, the merchants of New-York will have a place of resort that will have no superior, either in this country or in Europe, and exercise a large and beneficial influence. If it is not, I shall have at least the pleasure of having made a fair and useful and a patriotic proposition, and performed my duty as one of its humble members.

The subject was referred to a committee, consisting of the President, Messrs. Bloodgood and Cisco.

LETTER FROM PROFESSOR LIEBER.

New-York, September 13, 1861.

Sir,—Prevented by circumstances beyond my control from attending the first meeting of the Chamber of Commerce, after its honorary membership had been conferred on me, I am obliged to request of you, Mr. President, the favor of expressing to the Chamber my sincere thanks for the honor which your eminent institution has kindly bestowed upon me. I appreciate this distinction, and value it the more on account of the time in which you have extended it to me—a period, it seems, of peculiar honor to the merchants of New-York.

In selecting me for the honorary membership, the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New-York has doubtless been prompted by a desire to express its sympathy with one of the branches which I am teaching at Columbia College—a branch which, indeed, has been called the philosophy of commerce, and which certainly is the science of production and exchange, and exchange is commerce. May this sympathy between the great commerce of our city and the course of education and knowledge always subsist between your Chamber, the chartered embodiment of the merchants at the southern end of this the only port-surrounded city in the world, on the one hand, and our college on the northern hill of the city on the other hand. May they flourish together. Both are interwoven with the history of New-York. Our Chamber of Commerce was established, if I am not mistaken, in the year 1758, a few years after the foundation of our college. The two institutions are already linked

together by the worthy and venerated president of the latter, an active member of long standing of the former.

If a profession were required of a new member, I could make mine with reference to trade, and to that struggle in which our country is engaged and which signally affects our commerce, in a very few words.

I am by conviction, sympathy and all the results of observation and study, an unwavering Union man. I believe that commerce is the handmaid of civilization, and that men are inherently exchanging beings; I am in favor of the freest possible exchange, of unshackled trade; I know that one of the characteristics of modern progress is the almost universal establishment of free trade within each country ruled by one government; I believe that without the Union civil liberty will not be maintained, and I know that in modern history, ever since the downfall of antiquity, civil, and, in a great measure, even religious, liberty have gone hand in hand with commerce; and I know that when commerce suffers, that which presents itself to the less observing as a relief nearest at hand proves frequently the merest palliative—in economy as in medicine. War disturbs exchanging traffic, indeed, but every peace on that account is not a remedy. Many a peace recorded in history, ancient as well as modern, has proved a scourge more dire than the war it was intended to close. There is nothing great without its sacrifice, and commerce is not exempted from this universal law, any more than religion, science, liberty, the arts, or that civilization which comprehends them all.

We have civil war in our country—sad for all of us—and bitter for those who wantonly plunged her into this contest; for whatever its issue may be, one thing seems to be beyond all doubt—neither cotton nor slavery will come forth from this war as they went into it. The royal purple of the one will be rumpled, perhaps rent, and the divinity of the other will appear somewhat shorn and paled.

Be the end of the war what it may, the bankers and merchants of New-York, this Chamber and the capitalists, deserve the warmest acknowledgments of every patriot, and to take a much more confined view, of every economist, for having bravely supported the active and able Secretary of the Treasury in his directness of purpose and candor of conduct, when lately he was in the midst of us on his momentous errand to obtain a large portion of the means wherewith to carry on our just and conservative war, which has been forced upon us and is now necessary, even in a purely commercial point of view.

It is true, indeed, that those who are now in arms against their own country have proclaimed the desire of establishing free trade as one of the causes—an economical reason for an insurrection which commenced with the setting aside of the elements of morals, the stepping over the principles of honor, and the breaking of those oaths which are held by men most sacred; and, on the other hand, it is true that the United States have enacted an untoward tariff; but has the revolted portion of the country shown itself in former times, and does it show itself even now, frankly and plainly for free trade? The sugar interest of Louisiana tells us no. Had it ever been candidly in favor of internal free trade? The river tonnage duty, repeatedly asked for by men from that portion, would surely not have promoted free domestic traffic. If ever this insurrection should come victoriously to settle down into an acknowledged new state of things, would it not break up the free traffic and unhampered exchange in the territory of the Union, which is the largest portion of

the whole peopled northern continent—that free trade within the country for which Germany toilsomely labors, and which, permit me to repeat it, is one of the cheering characteristics of modern progress?

Nature gave us a land abounding in all the means of sustaining life and industry—food and fuel; she cast a network of fluvial high roads over the whole. Our history is marked by no feature more distinctly than by the early complete freedom of river navigation, for which other nations have struggled in vain for many long centuries; and this insurrection, with a federal confession of judgment, steps in and means to snap the silver thread. The Mississippi belongs to you, sir, as much as to any man in Louisiana, and it is mine as much as it is yours. It belongs to the country by divine right, if *jus divinum* ever existed in any case; and let us trust in that God the country will never allow it to be wrested from us. Every consideration, with the consciousness of a high mission imposed upon us by our Maker to that of the commonest economy, urges us to hold fast to the unstinted freedom of our fluvial and all other communication. Let us first re-establish complete free trade within our whole domain, and afterwards let every one who candidly believes in the blessings of international free trade see to that.

Important as the topic of free trade doubtless is proved to be by the recent history of civilized nations, and by the development of all exchange, there is, nevertheless, a principle which every economist and publicist acknowledges as of far greater importance for production and exchange for commerce in its evident and its narrowed spheres—it is the simple fact that the instability of the country's polity affects production and exchange far more than an injudicious policy, plague or conquest. Let the right of secession—as it has almost farcically been called—be established; let American polities be considered as confederacies of States merely pieced or huddled together without a pervading and comprehensive national element, (an *effete* type of polity belonging to a period long passed in the political progress of our race,) and, sir, we may as well close the doors of our Chamber, and you may save yourself the trouble of presiding over us. I say what I literally mean.

The right of secession once acknowledged would lead to a number of chartered States, following the pattern held up by the insurgents, which brings small States, proud of an imaginary sovereignty, into contact just sufficient to produce jarring and contest, and to prevent organic harmony. The history of all pure or real confederacies is uninviting, frequently appalling, whether regarded in a general point of view or with reference to production and wealth alone. To such a supposed state of things our commerce would cease to be an organic branch of civilization, and sink to the short-sighted, selfish extorting which constitutes the trading of all lawless countries, be the lawlessness caused by the despotism of the many, the heartless arrogance of the few or the tyranny of one.

As men of duty and honor, as patriots, as merchants and men of industry, as lovers of freedom and civilization, as men who know that great and constant accumulation of wealth is requisite for modern civilization, as men who are determined to do right and wish to act nobly, let us stand by our country and see that this gigantic, sanguinary absurdity be crushed or driven from every corner of the soil.

Accept, sir, the sentiments of my highest regard, with which I am your very obedient servant. FRANCIS LIEBER.

To PELATIAH PERIT, *President of the Chamber of Commerce.*

The Secretary reported that he had received copies of the following works for gratuitous distribution among the members:

I. Annual Report of the Patent Office of the United States on Agriculture, for the year 1860. One volume, 8vo., pp. 504, with engravings.

II. Remarks on the Proposed Issue of Treasury Notes on Demand.

III. Acts and Resolutions passed during the first session of the Thirty-Seventh Congress. July—August, 1861. Octavo, pp. 96.

IV. The Utility and Application of Heat as a Disinfectant. By ELISHA HARRIS, M. D., of New-York. Octavo, pp. 22.

V. Annual Report of the Superintendent of the Insurance Department of the State of New-York, March, 1861. Two volumes, octavo.

The Secretary reported that the speech of the Hon. JOSEPH HOLT before the Chamber of Commerce and citizens of New-York, at Irving Hall, on Tuesday, September 3d, had been printed in pamphlet form for distribution among all persons who desired copies.

The next meeting of the Chamber will be held Thursday, November 7th.

J. SMITH HOMANS, *Secretary.*

THE NEW-YORK PRODUCE EXCHANGE.

A meeting of grain dealers was held October 11th, after business hours, at the Produce Exchange. FRANCIS P. SAGE was appointed Chairman and F. BANKS, Secretary. The Chairman stated that the meeting had been called for the purpose of finally settling the demurrage question between the sellers of grain and the transportation men. Three days have usually been allowed to remove the grain after the arrival of the boat, after which twenty-five dollars per day had been charged. Three days had been found too short a time, and twenty-five dollars is too much to pay for each additional day. The buyers think the improvements which have recently been made in the size of the canal-boats entitle them to much more time.

The next question was the liability for a detention of the boats after the proper time for discharge. In their insurance policy provision is made, and five days are allowed for them to discharge. And it was also desirable to settle who is responsible for damage done to a boat after the proper time for discharge.

The third question was the right of rejection after the grain has been examined and the boat sent alongside the ship. From the length of time which occasionally elapses before a boat is discharged, after it is sent alongside ship, great loss is often caused.

Mr. LAWBER moved that a committee of two be appointed to represent all the interests, and report at the next meeting. The Chairman then appointed the following committee: Shipowners, FRANCIS M. FRENCH and JOHN S. WILLIAMS; buyers, J. J. KINGSLAND and H. STUTZER; receivers, J. B. HERRICK and E. S. BROWN; forwarders, M. M. CALEB and HUGH ALLEN. The meeting then adjourned until Friday, October 18th, at one o'clock.

JOURNAL OF NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE,

I. The American Shipmasters' Association. II. British Steam Vessels for China. III. British Steamers for Peru. IV. An Incident of the Sea. V. The Lake Trade to Liverpool. VI. Surveys in Australasia. VII. The Sandwich Islands. VIII. Light-Houses in Scotland—Cape of Good Hope—South Pacific—Coast of Brazil—Bay of Biscay.

AMERICAN SHIPMASTERS' ASSOCIATION.

The American Shipmasters' Association has been organized at New-York with a view to elevate the moral character and professional capacity of American seamen, by the encouragement of worthy and well-qualified officers, and to promote the security of life and property at sea. Under the direction of a council of experienced shipmasters and shipowners, certificates will be issued to worthy and competent persons, after examination, for such offices as they may be qualified to fill with credit in the mercantile marine service. These certificates, it is believed, will serve as a recommendation to shipowners, and will, doubtless, be encouraged by underwriters in making favorable insurances on vessels and cargoes under the command of officers holding them.

Merchants and shipowners paying ten dollars annual fee will be entitled to participate in the privileges of the association, in accordance with the rules thereof. The association will be under the direction of a president, the duties to be performed by a chairman and secretary. A treasurer will attend to the judicious management of its finances.

Suitable rooms in the "Merchants' Exchange," Nos. 89 and 90, are provided, called "The Shipmasters' Rooms," where the chairman and secretary will attend for the necessary duties of the association. These rooms will be supplied with newspapers, books and records relating to marine and commercial intelligence.

Subscribers to the association, shipmasters and officers holding its certificates, will have free admission to the rooms, with the privilege of introducing masters and mates of foreign vessels in port, or strangers temporarily visiting New-York.

Printed monthly reports of officers in good standing and holding certificates of the association will be furnished to the members, and will be published hereafter in the Merchants' Magazine.

In order to secure the contemplated object of the association by placing proper persons in commission, the right of revocation will be reserved in each certificate issued.

The council of the association are: Captain Charles H. Marshall, Captain Ezra Nye, Captain E. E. Morgan, Captain Robert L. Taylor, Captain William C. Thompson, (of the Neptune Insurance Company,) and John D. Jones, (President Atlantic Marine Insurance Company,) under whose directions examinations are to be made and certificates issued. These certificates will be of two grades: 1st. Of competency. 2d. Of service.

The certificate of competency will be issued to experienced seamen upon examination as to nautical science, under the direction of the council.

The certificate of service will be issued to any experienced officer for the station he has filled, when approved by the council, or under the rules which may be adopted. A record of all examinations and certificates issued will be kept by the secretary, alphabetically arranged, in convenient form for reference. Also a register of shipwrecks, with the names of officers in command. For the information of officers holding the certificates of the association, a bulletin will be kept with the address of persons desiring officers of vessels: and, if necessary, of officers not employed or desiring situations.

RULES OF THE COUNCIL OF THE SHIPMASTERS' ASSOCIATION.

I. *Certificates.*—Applicants for certificates must present a written statement, under their signature, specifying their native place, age, principal voyages and service, period of following the sea, and any other indication of their capacity or experience, and shall give reference to persons and vessels for and on which they have been employed, and shall answer such questions as may be deemed proper.

Such statements and answers, and written recommendations, certificates or objections from previous employers or others, shall be preserved for future reference.

Misstatements made by the applicant shall be a sufficient reason for refusing a certificate, or for revoking one, if granted.

II. *Master's Certificate of Service.*—The qualifications for a certificate of service shall be—experience as a mariner and as a navigator; skill in the sailing and management of a vessel; a service of one or more voyages as master; to be in good standing with his employer, of good character and habits, particularly as to temperance; he shall be twenty-one years of age, and have had six years' experience at sea.

If an applicant for a certificate as master has only served in a fore-and-aft rigged vessel, and is ignorant of the management of a square-rigged vessel, he may obtain a certificate on which the words "fore-and-aft rigged vessel" will appear.

III. *Certificates of Competency.*—The qualifications shall be all those required for service, and the applicant shall possess competent knowledge of nautical science to determine the longitude by observation, the proof of which shall be an examination under such rules as the council may prescribe.

IV. *Rejected Applications.*—Rejected applications for certificates shall not be reconsidered, except upon application of three members of the council, when the whole case may be examined.

V. *Revocations.*—All certificates may be revoked for reasons satisfactory to a majority of the council; for cruel or inhuman treatment of crew or passengers, for breach of trust or barratry, for unskilfulness or misconduct, involving unnecessary damage to vessel or cargo, or for shipwreck not satisfactorily accounted for.

VI. *Re-Examinations.*—On application of the holder, a revoked certificate may be reconsidered. If, upon examination by the council, or other persons under their directions, the applicant should prove faultless, a new certificate may be issued to him, but no new certificate shall be granted after a third revocation.

Officers of the Shipmasters' Association.

Council, Captain Charles H. Marshall, Captain Ezra Nye, Captain R. E. Morgan, Captain Robert L. Taylor, Captain William C. Thompson and John D. Jones, (*ex officio.*)

Treasurer, Daniel Drake Smith. Chairman, examiner in seamanship, Captain William W. Story. Secretary, Isaac H. Upton. President, John D. Jones.

Applications for certificates may be made at the rooms of the association, 89 and 90 "Merchants' Exchange," Wall-street, New-York.

BRITISH STEAM VESSEL FOR CHINA.

The steam tug Island Queen has been built, in England, for Mr. M'Farlane, who was for many years resident in China, and who thoroughly understands the river navigation of that country. She is about 400 tons measurement and 110 horse-power, the engines being made on the diagonal principle, which has been so successful in the Inca and other vessels. In this instance they are fitted with surface-condensers, and, as this great improvement in machinery was looked forward to with considerable interest, we have ascertained the following particulars of several trials the Island Queen has made:

She made her first trial trip to Douglas, Isle of Man, thence to Holyhead, and from there to Liverpool, her average speed being ten knots, and the consumption of coal equal to ten tons in twenty-four hours.

The next trial was to ascertain her efficiency as a tug boat; and in September last she towed out to sea, from the Mersey, a new vessel, belonging to Mr. Edward Bates, called the Edward Percy. The Edward Percy is about 900 tons measurement, and was drawing fully eighteen feet. She towed this vessel easily at the rate of eight knots per hour, which is considered a first-rate result, looking at the nominal power of the steamer and the size of the vessel towed. The consumption of coal during the time she was towing was at the rate of twelve tons in twenty-four hours. The surface-condensers worked beautifully, the vacuum being steady at twenty-eight.

Two other trials were made, each of four hours' duration. In one case she made a speed of eight to nine knots, with a consumption equal to six tons in twenty-four hours; going ten to eleven knots, the consumption was equal to ten and a half tons. So far, therefore, this improved class of engines, with surface-condensers, has proved satisfactory, and its advantages will be more apparent when contrasted with engines on the common plan, especially for long voyages, the boilers being kept perfectly clean and free from the incrustation usual when ordinary condensers are used.

THE PACIFIC STEAM NAVIGATION COMPANY.

Messrs. John Reid & Co., Port Glasgow, launched from their building-yard a magnificent iron paddle steamship, of 1,400 tons register, named the Peru. This vessel is the property of the Pacific Steam Navigation Company, and is intended to ply between Panama and Valparaiso, as a consort to the Callao, Valparaiso and other ships built by Messrs. John Reid & Co., a few years ago. The Peru will be furnished with Messrs.

Randolph, Elder & Co.'s patent double cylinder engines, of 350 nominal horse power. In September last Messrs. Randolph, Elder & Co. launched from their recently acquired building-yard at Govan the first vessel built by their firm. The vessel alluded to was christened the Talca, and is the property of the Pacific Steam Navigation Company. She is a paddle steamer, of the following dimensions: length of keel and forerake, 190 feet; breadth of beam, 30 feet; depth from keel to under side of upper deck at amidships, 17 feet; height between decks, 6 feet; burden, 800 tons. Her engines are Randolph, Elder & Co.'s patent double cylinder, of 160 horse power nominal.

AN INCIDENT OF THE SEA.

The ship Albert Gallatin, on one of her outward voyages to New-York, early in the present year, experienced very severe weather, and when in lat. 49° 30′ N., long. 42° W., the captain (Delano) threw a bottle overboard containing a memorandum to the effect that the vessel was suffering from a violent gale, and requesting any person who picked up the bottle to report the circumstance. The memorandum was dated February 9, and on the 7th March the Albert Gallatin arrived in a leaky and distressed state at New-York. On the 19th February the bottle was picked up off the Island of Iona, north of Scotland.

THE DIRECT ROUTE TO LIVERPOOL.

The John G. Deshler, of Detroit, Michigan, which arrived at Liverpool from that port, grain laden, when on her passage though the Straits of Belle Isle, and when surrounded by ice and in very thick weather, was driven upon the rocks, where she remained for three days, but, after discharging a part of her cargo, she was, through the great exertions and skill used by Captain Mann, got once more into deep water, and was safely navigated by him to this port, where the remainder of her cargo has been discharged in first-rate order. This is her third voyage across, and the severe test she has undergone is another proof, if it were necessary, that the lake-built vessels are quite equal, if not superior, for carrying cargoes in good condition to many of the ocean-going ships.

The bark Ravenna, Captain Malott, arrived at Chicago, September 28, direct from Liverpool. She made the run from Liverpool to Quebec in the short space of twenty-eight days without carrying away a sail, rope or spar, and outsailing ships which left 20 and 30 days before her. The Ravenna brings 200 tons of salt for Chicago; the remainder of her cargo was consigned to Detroit and Cleveland. This is the first shipment to Chicago direct from Liverpool in an American vessel. The Ravenna left here on the first of June, and the trip has proved that grain can be landed in Liverpool direct from Lake Michigan in as good condition as it can from New-York.—*Chicago Journal, Saturday Evening, September 28th.*

AUSTRALASIA.

The surveys of the coasts of Australasia have now been amply provided for. New South Wales and Victoria are each to contribute £3,500

a year; South Australasia, £2,000; and Tasmania and Queensland, £1,500 a year each towards the surveys, and the English Admiralty has sanctioned a similar sum of £10,000 a year out of the imperial treasury to meet the contributions of the colonies.

THE SANDWICH ISLANDS.

At the October meeting of the Ethnological Society, New-York, the recording secretary read an account, by Mr. JOANE, of the Micronesian mission, published in June last, of a voyage of five hundred miles and back, made by a few natives in their little canoes, without a compass, and with only two stopping-places, guided by the stars, currents, winds, &c. This writer remarked that this fact proved that the islands of the Pacific might have been peopled either by accident or by design, and accounted for known resemblances in language, &c.

The author considers it certain that the Sandwich Islands were peopled from the Society Islands, and that voyages were made between them before the days of Captain COOK. Mr. GULICK stated, at a former meeting of the society, that he had seen natives who had recently performed that voyage in canoes; and they declined accepting a compass, saying that their pilot had one *in his head.*

NEW LIGHT-HOUSES.

Roman Rock Light, False Bay, Cape of Good Hope.—Official information has been received at the Department of State, from the Colonial Government at the Cape of Good Hope, that a light would be exhibited from the new light-house on the Roman Rocks on the 16th September, 1861, which will supersede that shown at the light-vessel now moored a cable's length north of the rocks. It will be a *revolving white* light, showing a *bright* face for the space of twelve seconds *twice* every minute, which will serve to distinguish it from the Cape Point light in thick weather, as that light revolves only *once* every minute. The light will be fifty-four feet above the sea, and visible in clear weather, from a ship's deck, thirteen miles distant.

The light-tower is forty-eight feet high, the lower half of which will be painted black and the upper half white. From the light-house, Noah's Ark bears S. 56° W. $\frac{7}{16}$ miles, and the Dock-yard clock W. by N. 1.65 mile.

N. N. E. $\frac{3}{8}$ E. $2\frac{3}{4}$ cables from the light-house, lies the *Castor Rock*, with only fifteen feet on it at low water, springs. Its position is marked by a beacon, with a flag, having the word "rock" painted on it. There are patches of nineteen and twenty-four feet between the Castor Rock and the light-house, which renders it necessary for large ships to give the light-house a berth of at least three and a half cables, when passing to the N. E., before hauling in for Simon's Bay.

In sailing for Simon's Bay, by keeping the light-house in line with Elsey Peak, bearing N. $\frac{1}{4}$ W., a ship will pass midway between the Whittle Rock and Miller's Point.

Scotland, West Coast, Sound of Islay—Fixed Light on Macarthur Head.—Official information has been received, that on and after the 1st

day of September, 1861, a light would be exhibited from the light-house recently erected on Macarthur Head, on the western side of the south entrance to the Sound of Islay, Argyllshire. The light will be a *fixed* light. It will show *white* up the Sound, from the eastern shore of the Island of Islay, till it bears about S. ¼ W.; *red* towards the Island of Jura, from S. ¼ W. till it bears about west; and *white* from west, round southerly and as far to the westward as it can be seen, or until obscured by the south side of Islay. The light will be elevated about 128 feet above the level of high water springs, and should be seen in clear weather at a distance of 17 miles.

The illuminating apparatus is dioptric or by lenses, varying with range from the first to the third order. The light will show its greatest power towards Cantyre to the south and the Sound of Islay to the north. The light-tower is circular, built of stone, and painted white. It is 42 feet in height from the ground to top of lantern, and its position is lat. 55° 45′ 55″ N., long. 6° 2′ 55″ west of Greenwich.

Bay of Biscay, Spain, North Coast—Fixed and Flashing Light at Rivadesella.—Notice has been given, that on and after the 20th day of August, 1861, a light would be exhibited from a building recently erected on Mount Somos, the western extremity of the entrance of the Ria or Inlet of Rivadesella, in the province of Oviedo, on the north coast of Spain, in the Bay of Biscay. The light is *fixed* and *flashing*, showing a bright flash every four minutes. It is placed at an elevation of 370 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be visible from the deck of a ship, in an ordinary state of the weather, at a distance of 17 miles, but only through an arc of the horizon of 167 degrees to seaward. The illuminating apparatus is catadioptric, or by lenses of the third order.

The light-tower is square, surmounted by an octagonal lantern, and rises from the centre of the keeper's dwelling to a height of twenty-five feet from the ground. All the buildings, including the lantern, are painted white. The tower stands 30 yards from the margin of the sea, in lat. 43° 28′ 40″ N., long. 1° 5′ 0″ east of the Observatory of San Fernando, at Cadiz, or 5° 7′ 16″ west of Greenwich.

Jupiter Inlet and Cape Florida Lights.—Official information has been received, that on or about the 23d August, 1861, a band of lawless persons extinguished the lights at Jupiter Inlet and Cape Florida, on the coast of Florida, and removed the illuminating apparatus, &c.

Cape of Good Hope, Simon's Bay—Revolving light on Roman Rocks.—On and after the 16th day of September, 1861, a light will be exhibited from the light-house recently erected on the Roman Rocks, near the western shore of False Bay, Cape of Good Hope, South Africa. The light will be a *revolving* white light, showing a bright face for the space of twelve seconds every half minute. It will be placed 54 feet above the mean level of the sea, and in clear weather should be seen from the deck of a vessel at a distance of 12 miles. The illuminating apparatus is catoptric or by reflectors of the third order. The light-house is circular, of iron, and 48 feet high; the lower half will be painted black, the upper half white. Its position is lat. 34° 10′ 45″ S., long. 18° 27′ 30″ east from Greenwich. Noah's Ark Rock bears from it S. W. by W. three-quarters of a mile, and the Dock-yard clock W. by N. 1¼ mile. The

light vessel hitherto moored on the north side of the Roman Rocks will be removed on the exhibition of the above light.

The Castor Rock, with only 15 feet on it at low water springs, lies N. N. E. ¾ E., 2¾ cables from the light-house; it is marked by a beacon, with a flag having the word *rock* painted on it. Between this rock and the light-house there are patches of 19 and 24 feet water. To avoid these dangers a vessel of large draught, when passing to the northeast of the light-house, should give it a berth of 3¼ cables before hauling in for Simon's Bay. When bound to Simon's Bay from the southward by day, the light-house kept in line with Elsey peak N. ¾ W., will lead between the Whittle Rock and Miller's Point. By night this bearing of the light is the only guide.

Caution.—The mariner should be on his guard in misty weather against the possibility of mistaking the light on Roman Rocks for the light on Cape Point, as they are both revolving, and only ten miles apart. The distinction consists in the difference of interval of revolution, the light on Cape Point showing its bright face every minute, and the light on the Roman Rocks every half minute.

South America, Coast of Brazil—Revolving Light on Santa Barbara, Abrolhos Islands.—The Secretary of State for the marine department at Rio de Janeiro has given notice that a light is exhibited from a light-house recently erected on the island of Santa Barbara, one of the Abrolhos Islands, on the coast of Brazil. The light is a revolving white light, attaining its greatest brilliancy every minute. It is placed at an elevation of 189 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen in clear weather at a distance of 17 miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses of the first order. The tower, which is circular and surrounded by a dwelling, stands on the highest part of the island. It is built of iron, 51 feet high, and surmounted by a bronze lantern. The position of the eastern summit of the island is latitude 17° 57′ 42″ S., longitude 38° 41′ 30″ west of Greenwich.

Revolving Light on Ponta dos Naufragados.—A light is exhibited from a light-house recently erected on Ponta dos Naufragados, on the southern bar of St. Catharine. The light is a revolving white light, attaining its greatest brilliancy every thirty seconds. It is placed at an elevation of 149 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen in clear weather at a distance of 18 miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses of the second order. The tower is circular, and its position is given in latitude 27° 49′ S., and longitude 48° 42′ 37″ west of Greenwich.

South Pacific Ocean.—Reef off Stewart Isle, New-Zealand.—The following notice to mariners has been received from the Admiralty, London: "It appears from an examination of the weather-book of the ship Bruce, Thomas Meiklejohn, commander, in his passage from Otago, by the south of New-Zealand, to Calcutta, in November, 1860, when passing the southeast extreme of South or Stewart Island, discovered a dangerous reef, which is not laid down in the Admiralty or any other charts, or noticed in the New-Zealand pilot or sailing directions. This danger, which is described as two low rocks, from three to six feet high, and close together, on which the sea breaks heavily, lies in the direct track of vessels closely rounding Stewart Island in proceeding to or from the

southern settlements of New-Zealand. Its position, which appears to have been determined with some accuracy, is as follows:

"$7\frac{1}{10}$ miles E. by N. $\frac{3}{4}$ N. from Owen Island, off Lord's River.
"$5\frac{1}{10}$ " E. by N. $\frac{1}{2}$ N. " the extreme of the Break Sea Isles.
"$3\frac{1}{4}$ " E. by S. $\frac{3}{8}$ S. " Wreck Reef, off Port Adventure.
"$7\frac{1}{4}$ " S. E. $\frac{3}{4}$ E. " East Head, north of Port Adventure.
"Or, in latitude 47° 7′ 35″ S., and longitude 168° 21′ 35″ E.

"Soundings, though tried for, were not obtained in its neighborhood, from the rapid rate of sailing of the ship in passing the danger.

"*Caution.*—It is creditable to Captain MEIKLEJOHN to have entered the discovery of this reef in his weather-book, but it is greatly to be regretted that he did not take some steps, immediately on his arrival at Calcutta or in England, to make public the existence of this very serious danger, which lies but little out of the sailing track of ships bound to the southern settlements of New-Zealand. Had not the remark been seen by Rear Admiral FITZ ROY, (who was searching this book for meteorological facts, and at once transmitted it to the Admiralty for publication,) this reef might not have been heard of until it had caused the wreck of a vessel. On being applied to for further information, Captain MEIKLEJOHN readily sent up his original chart on which the reef was marked at the time, and there can be but little doubt of its existence. Masters of vessels are, therefore, warned to keep a good lookout in this neighborhood. They are further requested, on the discovery of any danger, to report the same immediately on arriving at the first port, in order that other vessels may be put on their guard, and for the general benefit of the mariner."

IRON-PLATED SHIPS.

Three of the tenders made to the English Admiralty for iron-plated vessels were promptly accepted by Mr. MARE, of Millwall, Mr. LAIRD, of Birkenhead, and by the Thames Iron Works, where the WARRIOR was built, and they were ordered to commence the construction of the vessels forthwith. The length of the new ships will be 400 feet on the low-water line; breadth, extreme, 59 feet 4 inches; depth, 21 feet below the gun-deck; and tonnage, 6,815. The length of the WARRIOR class is 380 feet, breadth 58 feet, and tonnage 6,170. The breadth of deck, however, in the proposed frigates, will not be greater than the WARRIOR, as the Admiralty have most wisely decided on giving the sides of the new vessels a greater incline towards the deck. Thus, the slope of the WARRIOR's sides inwards, from the water's edge, or the "tumble home," as it is termed, is an incline of about one foot in thirteen; whereas, in the ships to be built it will be at an incline of one in eight and a half feet, which, of course, not only increases the chances of the shot glancing off, but has the more important advantage of getting the weight more in the centre, and diminishing the tendency to roll. The internal subdivisions, as to water-tight compartments, &c., will be almost precisely similar to those of the WARRIOR. The main decks are to be armed with 36 100-pounder ARMSTRONGS, and the spar-deck with 21 guns of a similar calibre. Two forward guns will, it is said, be 200-pounders, and so, also, will the pivot-gun at the stern.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

I. The Confiscation Act of August, 1861. II. Results of Confiscation Act. III. Commercial Treaty between France and Italy. IV. Free Importations into France. V. Treaty between England and France. VI. Treaty with Turkey. VII. Treaty between Russia and China. VIII. Decisions of the Secretary of the Treasury on Hollow Ware—Woollen Card Cloth—Printed Cotton Handkerchiefs.

AN ACT TO CONFISCATE PROPERTY USED FOR INSURRECTIONARY PURPOSES.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That if, during the present or any future insurrection against the government of the United States, after the President of the United States shall have declared, by proclamation, that the laws of the United States are opposed, and the execution thereof obstructed by combinations too powerful to be suppressed by the ordinary course of judicial proceedings, or by the power vested in the marshals by law, any person or persons, his, her or their agent, attorney or employee, shall purchase or acquire, sell or give, any property of whatsoever kind or description, with intent to use or employ the same, or suffer the same to be used or employed, in aiding, abetting or promoting such insurrection or resistance to the laws, or any person or persons engaged therein; or if any person or persons, being the owner or owners of any such property, shall knowingly use or employ, or consent to the use or employment of the same as aforesaid, all such property is hereby declared to be lawful subject of prize and capture wherever found; and it shall be the duty of the President of the United States to cause the same to be seized, confiscated and condemned.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That such prizes and capture shall be condemned in the district or circuit court of the United States having jurisdiction of the amount, or in admiralty in any district in which the same may be seized, or into which they may be taken and proceedings first instituted.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That the Attorney-General, or any District Attorney of the United States in which said property may at the time be, may institute the proceedings of condemnation, and in such case they shall be wholly for the benefit of the United States; or any person may file an information with such attorney, in which case the proceedings shall be for the use of such informer and the United States in equal parts.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That whenever hereafter, during the present insurrection against the government of the United States, any person claimed to be held to labor or service under the law of any State shall be required or permitted by the person to whom such labor or service is claimed to be due, or by the lawful agent of such person, to take up arms against the United States, or shall be required or permitted by the person to whom such labor or service is claimed to be due, or his lawful agent, to work to be employed in or upon any fort, navy yard, dock, armory, ship, entrenchment, or in any military or naval service whatsoever, against the government and lawful authority of the United States, then and in every such case the person to whom such labor or service is claimed to be due, shall forfeit his claim to such labor, any law of the State or of the United States to the contrary notwithstanding. And

whenever thereafter the person claiming such labor or service shall seek to enforce his claim, it shall be a full and sufficient answer to such claim that the person whose service or labor is claimed had been employed in hostile service against the government of the United States, contrary to the provisions of this act.

Approved, August 6, 1861.

CONFISCATION OF VESSELS.

The seizure of vessels at New-York and other Northern ports, under the new confiscation act, still continues. All the vessels taken are first libelled, then confiscated, and will be finally sold to the highest bidder. Some of these vessels were loading with cargoes for foreign ports. The government, it is stated, will not claim their cargoes, (unless it should be proved that they were intended to be shipped to Southern ports,) and the owners will be afforded every facility for their removal.

In case of most of the seizures but a small part, say one-fourth of the vessel, belongs to parties in the seceded States. The three-fourths owners, resident in the North, will bid in the vessels, and, as the Secretary of the Treasury has discretionary powers by the act, he will undoubtedly remit the amount paid for shares previously owned by the bidders-in, and accept only the amount due for the portion of the vessel claimed by Southern owners.

The Southern owners can, of course, have no claim upon the Northern buyers, as the act of Congress confiscates their property. The South is thus likely to be cut off from any ownership in a large number of vessels, and Northern shipowners will have an opportunity of adding to their property at a considerable rate, considering the probable amount which will be invested under the confiscation sale.

With regard to the transferred vessels, it is believed that there will be no special difficulty in establishing the illegality of the transfers. The federal government will not be likely to recognise powers of attorney issued by the rebels, particularly when they were issued for the purpose of attempting to nullify a law enacted by Congress, and to avoid the confiscation which the act of Congress and the proclamation of the President decree.

COMMERCIAL TREATY BETWEEN FRANCE AND ITALY.

The *Pungola* of Milan gives the following details concerning the treaty of commerce now in course of negotiation between France and Italy: Absolute reciprocity in commerce and navigation, even in the coasting trade. Perfect equality for vessels as regards tonnage, pilotage and quarantine dues, &c.; also for loading and unloading cargoes in port, the use of docks &c. Agricultural and manufactured productions of all countries to be imported by French and Italian vessels without any differential dues being imposed. The productions of the two countries, exported or imported from one to the other, to enjoy the privileges accorded to those of the most favored nations. Perfect equalities of duties in the coral and other fisheries. All favors which may hereafter be accorded to any nation by either power, is to be accorded to the other. The reduced import duties on certain articles granted by preceding treaties to be extended to rice, flax and hemp tissues, salt meat, &c. The reductions

accorded to Belgium by the recent treaty to be extended to Italy. Abolition of the certificate of origin in the event of direct imports. Italian securities to be negotiated in the Bourse of Paris, and those of France in the Bourses of Italy. Abandonment of all taxes and charges whatever in case of shipwreck, also of all transit dues.

TREATY BETWEEN RUSSIA AND CHINA.

The *Delhi Gazette* of June 27th gives the following as authentic: The Ambassador of the King of Kokan arrived in Cabul on the 5th, on his way to Peshawur, and was received very warmly in Durbar by the Ameer. He (the ambassador) informed the Ameer that he was going with certain proposals to the British authorities which had relation to news received at Kokan, to the effect that a treaty had been concluded between the Emperor of Russia and the Emperor of China, by which the Russians have pledged themselves to protect and hold seven cities belonging to China, situated near the boundaries of Yarcund Kashkur, and to occupy the same by an armed military force. The Russians have also agreed to assist the Chinese with troops, if necessary, against the British and Kokanees. It seems that the Emperor of China had written to the Czar to say that the British had taken some of his places near Hindostan, and were intending to come upon others; and his Celestial Majesty having received a very favorable answer to his letter from Russia was the cause of the treaty being concluded.

FREE IMPORTATIONS.

The Chamber of Commerce of Boulogne have published a notice calling particular attention to the liberal dispositions of the Circular, No. 781, just issued by the French Custom House, in accordance with which French subjects returning into France, or foreigners settling there, are allowed to import all articles of personal and domestic use, such as clothing, house-furniture, musical instruments, books, &c., free of duty. Agricultural implements, tools and mechanical appliances may also be imported free of duty by persons intending to employ them, and students' materials and marriage outfits are also to be exempt from duty.

THE ANGLO-FRENCH COMMERCIAL TREATY.

The Paris correspondent of the London *Times*, writing in September, says: Now that the first of October is approaching, the term at which the treaty of commerce with England is to be carried into full execution, the shopkeepers in Paris who deal in cotton goods are reducing their prices to a figure quite unprecedented. They fear, it is said, that the French market will be overstocked with British manufactures. Every Englishman they perceive in any public place they imagine to be a manufacturer come to compete with and undersell them. A Rouen paper states that the hotels in that town are filled with English merchants and manufacturers, come to make sales of their produce for the 1st of October, the period when a variety of British merchandise will be admitted into France on the payment of a duty of 15 per cent. *ad valorem*. That paper adds that the prices demanded by the English dealers are so mod-

erate that they would create surprise, were it not known that English merchants make immense sacrifices in order to become masters of the market.

TREATY WITH TURKEY.

The treaty of commerce between Great Britain and Turkey, which is to come into operation on the 1st of October, has been laid before Parliament. Turkish produce and manufactures purchased by British subjects are to be liable to no duty, except an export duty of 8 per cent., diminishing annually by 1 per cent., until it be reduced to a fixed *ad valorem* duty of 1 per cent., to cover the general expenses of administration and control; and the produce and manufactures of the dominions and possessions of Her Britannic Majesty are not to be subject in Turkey to any duty beyond an import duty of 8 per cent., but the import of tobacco or salt is prohibited. There is to be no differential duty on British shipping. The duty of 3 per cent. now levied on articles passing through Turkey by land to other countries is to be reduced to 2 per cent., and after eight years, is to be merely 1 per cent., to defray the expense of registration. No charge is to be made on British produce or goods in British ships passing through the States. The "most favored nation" clauses are inserted.

Decisions of the Secretary of the Treasury of questions arising upon appeals by importers from the Decisions of Collectors relating to the proper classification, under the Tariff Act of March 2, 1861, of certain articles of Foreign Manufacture, entered at the ports of Boston and New-York.

HOLLOW WARE.

Treasury Department, July 12, 1861.

Sir,—I have had under consideration your report on the appeal of Messrs. LALANCE & GROSJEAN from your assessment of duty, at the rate of 30 per cent., under the provision for "manufactures of metal, &c., not otherwise provided for," in section 22 of the tariff act of March 2, 1861, on certain "hollow ware" imported by them.

The appellants claim entry at the rate of 2½ cents per pound, as being provided for in section 7, under the classification of "hollow ware, glazed or tinned."

The articles in question it appears are returned by the appraisers at your port as composed of "metal, and hollow, but not castings of iron." The provision under which the importers claim to enter at a duty of 2½ cents per pound refers, in my opinion, to hollow ware, being a casting of iron, and does not embrace hollow ware of any other description. Being excluded from that classification, the wares in question would fall under the provision to which you referred them on the entry, viz.: "Manufactured, articles, vessels and wares, not otherwise provided for, of brass, copper, gold, iron, lead, pewter, platina, silver, tin or other metal, or of which either of these metals, or any other metal, shall be the component material of chief value," and your decision assessing duty at the rate of 30 per centum *ad valorem* is affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, &c., New-York.*

WOOLLEN CARD CLOTH.

Treasury Department, July 29, 1861.

Sir,—I have had under consideration your report on the appeal of Mr. BENJAMIN POLAND from your decision, subjecting to duty, at the rate of 12 cents per pound, and in addition thereto 25 per centum *ad valorem*, as a "manufacture of wool, made wholly or in part of wool, not otherwise provided for," under the tariff of March 2, 1861, certain "woollen card cloth" imported by him.

The appellant claims entry thereof at the rate of 30 per cent. under section 22 of the tariff of 1861, as being provided for in the provision for "manufactures not otherwise provided for, composed of mixed materials, in part of cotton, silk, wool or worsted or flax." The article under consideration is a manufacture, cotton, wool and linen, and is used for manufacturing cotton cards.

After a careful examination of this case I concur with you in opinion, that the merchandise in question is subject, under the second subdivision of section 13 of the tariff of 1861, to duty at the rate of 12 cents per pound, and in addition thereto 25 per centum *ad valorem*.

Your assessment of duty at those rates is affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

J. Z. GOODRICH, Esq., *Collector, &c., Boston, Mass.*

PRINTED COTTON HANDKERCHIEFS.

Treasury Department, September 10, 1861.

Sir,—I have had under consideration the appeal of Messrs. L. HEIDENHEIMER & Co., from your assessment of duty at the rate of "2 cents per square yard and ten per centum *ad valorem* in addition," on printed cotton handkerchiefs, under the provision in section 14 of the tariff of March 2, 1861, for "manufactures of cotton, &c., on finer or lighter goods of like description, not exceeding 140 threads to the square inch, counting the warp and filling, two cents per square yard, * * * * and if printed, painted, colored or stained, there shall be levied, collected and paid a duty of 10 per centum *ad valorem* in addition."

The appellants claim that the above section refers "only to goods sold by the *yard*, and printed cotton handkerchiefs being bought and sold by the dozen or by the piece, the meaning of the act could not be to levy on them a duty by the yard," but that they should be classified either under the head of "all manufactures of cotton, bleached, printed, painted or dyed, not otherwise provided for," at 30 per cent., section 14, or, "as wearing apparel ready for use," at the same rate of duty, section 22.

These goods are in pieces of several dozens in length.

I concur in the views expressed by you, and the goods in question are liable, in my opinion, to duty at the rates assessed on the entry, viz., two cents per square yard and ten per centum in addition.

I am, very respectfully,

S. P. CHASE, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

HIRAM BARNEY, Esq., *Collector, &c., New-York.*

MARINE LOSSES FOR JUNE, 1861.

DATE.	STEAMERS.	MASTERS.	TONS.	WHERE BUILT.	YEAR.	RAIL FROM.	WHERE FROM.	WHERE TO.	DISASTERS.	LOSS ON VESSEL.	LOSS ON CARGO.	TOTAL LOSSES.
15	Canadian, (Br.)	Graham,	2000	Greenock,	1860	Liverpool,	Quebec,	Liverpool,	Tot. loss; sk. by ice in St. Law. R. June 4,	$ 350,000	$ 40,000	$ 390,000
18	Tulu, (Br.)	Goodwin,	452	Glasgow,	1857	Glasgow,	New-York,	Kingston, Ja.,	Total loss at Port Morant, Ja., May 28,	75,000	60,000	135,000
									2 Steamers, ... Totals,	$ 425,000	$ 100,000	$ 525,000
	SHIPS.											
4	Betsy Williams,	Nickerson,	400	Stonington	1846	New-Bedford,	Manzanilla,	New-York,	On Riding Rocks, off and at Nassau, May 5,	$ 6,000	$ 5,000	$ 11,000
25	Dashaway,	Wedge,	1012	Hallowell, Me,	1854	Hallowell,	Baltimore,	Calcutta,	Put back to Baltimore, leaky, June 24,	6,700	3,000	9,700
8	Equal Rights,	G.W. Collier	850	Black Rock,	1861	New-York,	New-York,	Bristol, Eng.,	Put into St. Thomas, leaky, May 15,	4,600	3,400	8,000
24	Masonic,	Sebart,	439	Richmond,	1847	Bath,	New-Orleans,	Liverpool,	Put into St. Thomas, leaky, May 23,	3,700	2,600	6,300
4	Vesper,	G.W. Bailey,	321	Newbury,	1827	New-London,	New-London,	Whaling,	Condemned at Honolulu, March 26,	10,000	.....	10,000
									5 Ships, ... Totals,	$ 31,000	$ 14,000	$ 45,000
	BARKS.											
14	Coronet, (Br.)	Brown,	871	Miramichi,	1860	Miramichi,	Savannah,	Liverpool,	Total loss at Hunting Islands, May 20,	$ 40,000	$ 26,000	$ 66,000
12	Cornelia,	Barton,	306	Eastport,	1849	New-York,	Havana,	Cardenas,	Total loss on Key Pedro, June,	8,500	.....	8,500
6	Caroline Ellems,	Ellems,	398	Rockland,	1855	Rockland,	Pensacola,	Cienfuegos,	Total loss on Jardinallis Bank, May 13,	15,000	3,000	18,000
10	Emma Eloise, (P.)	Healy,	365	Memel,	1856	Memel,	Madeira,	Baltimore,	Total loss on Cape Hatteras, June 2,	17,000	30,000	47,000
14	Edward, (Br.)	Tucker,	627	Quebec,	1849	Liverpool,	Liverpool,	Savannah,	Ashore near St. Helena, June 6, ar. N. Y.,	2,000	.....	2,000
4	Johan, (Br.)	Clase,	430	Nova Scotia,	1849	Liverpool,	Darien,	Queenstown,	Abandoned at sea, April 18,	9,000	6,000	15,000
22	Mary R. Barney,	Robbins,	280	Warren, R. I.,	1852	Fall River,	Havana,	Falmouth, E.,	Put into Bermuda, June 16,	4,000	3,700	7,700
15	Mary Sawyer,	Bartlett,	305	Wells, Me.,	1853	Wells,	Sagua,	New-York,	Ashore on West Bank, N. Y. Bay, June 14,	3,500	6,000	9,500
15	Sarah Sheaf,	Chase,	402	Portsmouth,	1824	Boston,	Buenos Ayres,	Cork,	Put into Baltimore in dis., June 14, (cond.)	7,500	9,000	16,500
30	Tanaro,	Berry,	499	Bath, Me.,	1851	Bath,	Havana,	Cronstadt,	On fire and sunk at Cronstadt, June 13,	8,500	.....	8,500
									10 Barks, ... Totals,	$ 115,000	$ 83,700	$ 198,700
	BRIGS.											
15	Alpine,	Killman,	249	Frankfort, Me.	1858	Frankfort,	New-Orleans,	Bordeaux,	Put into Newport, leaky,	$ 4,500	$ 3,000	$ 7,500
14	Bedouin, (Br.)	McKenzie,	298	New-Glasgow	1858	New-Glasgow	New-York,	Galway,	Abandoned at sea, April,	11,000	15,000	26,000
8	Borneo,	Norton,	199	Bristol, Me.,	1851	Jacksonville,	Minatitlan,	Hamburg,	Put into Key West, leaky, May 18,	3,700	2,500	6,200
26	Com. Stewart,	Wilson,	155	Harpswell,	1847	Harpswell,	Matanzas,	Portland,	Total loss on White Head Island, June 16,	4,000	.....	4,000
8	Franklin, (Br.)	Chisholm,	176	Maitland, N.S.	1859	Maitland,	Sydney, C. B.,	New-York,	Total loss on Conch Reef, May 21,	5,000	2,500	7,500
12	Jaffa, (Br.)	Douglass,	192	Maitland, N.S.	1858	Maitland,	Sydney, C. B.,	New-York,	Total loss on Nantucket Island, June 8,	3,700	4,000	7,700
2	Lind, (Dan.)	Petersen,	238	Westarvick,	1840	Westarvick,	New-York,	Liverpool,	Missing since December 26, 1860,	5,500	9,000	14,500
9	Milton,	Hoyt,	155	New-Bedford,	1844	Boston,	Marseilles,	Boston,	Condemned at Gibraltar, May 14th,	6,000	4,000	10,000
									8 Brigs, ... Totals,	$ 43,400	$ 40,000	$ 83,400

DATE.	SCHOONERS.	MASTER.	TONS.	WHERE BUILT.	YEAR.	HAIL FROM.	WHERE FROM.	WHERE TO.	DISASTERS.	LOSS ON VESSEL.	LOSS ON CARGO.	TOTAL LOSSES.
1	R. M. Healey,.....	Healey,	259	Mauricetown,	1860	Greenwich,	Cardenas,	Portland,	Put in Holmes' Hole, leaky, May 29,	$ 500	.....	$ 500
22	Envoy,.....	Low,	110	Damariscotta,	1849	Boston,	Bangor,	New-York,	Put in Boston, leaky, June 20,	900	.....	900
4	J. J. Spencer,.....	A. Dole,	234	Bridgton, N.J.	1855	Camden, N. J.	New-Orleans,	Bordeaux,	Put in Philadelphia, leaky, May 20,	1,800	$ 2,000	3,800
	Mary Ann,.....	.....	126	Morristown,	1847	Morristown,	Delaware R.,	Wrecking,	Total loss at Overalls, Del. Bay,	1,000	.....	1,000
17	Mariner, (Br.)	Morris,	240	Cornwallis,	1860	Cornwallis,	Hillsboro, N.B	New-York,	Abandoned, lat. 40 15, lon. 69 35, May 28,	10,000	3,000	13,000
5	Medora,.....	L. Rhoades,	99	Bucksport,	1848	Rockland,	New-York,	Portland,	Col. schr. Tarquin, and sunk, June 2,	1,000	4,000	5,000
2	N. & D. Scudder,..	Pinckney,	97	Mystic, Ct.,	1852	Barnstable,	Barnstable,	Fishing,	Put in Liverpool, N. S., leaky, May 15,	1,200	.....	1,200
4	Sarah H. Sears,...	A.E.Goodsell	175	Fairhaven,	1859	New-Haven,	New-York,	Nassau,	Aband. 18 m. from Harbor Island, May 18,	12,800	12,000	24,800
29	Sea Breeze, (Br.) .	R. Wilson,	192	Hopewell, N.B	1860	St. Johns, N.B.	Matanzas,	New-York,	Put in St. Thomas leaky, (2d dis.) June 10,	5,000	4,000	9,000
13	Woodpecker, (Br.)	.....	175	London,	1860	London,	Columbia R.,	Victoria,	Total loss on Columbia Bar, May 10,	9,500	2,700	12,200
									10 Schooners,.....Totals,	$ 43,700	$ 27,700	$ 71,400

MARINE LOSSES FOR JULY, 1861.

DATE.	STEAMERS.	MASTER.	TONS.	WHERE BUILT.	YEAR.	HAIL FROM.	WHERE FROM.	WHERE TO.	DISASTERS.	LOSS ON VESSEL.	LOSS ON CARGO.	TOTAL LOSSES.
3	Cataline,.....	.....	150	New-York,	185	New-York,	Fort. Monroe,	In port,	Total loss by fire in Hampton Roads,	$ 25,000	....	$ 25,000
1	Jno. R. Thompson,	Jas. Colory,	115	Baltimore,	1852	Philadelphia,	New-York,	Baltimore,	S'k by wreck of John Truck, Phil. June 28,	1,800	$ 10,000	11,800
6	New World,.....	St. John,	....	New-York,	185	New-York,	New-York,	Albany,	Struck sunk. barge, sunk near Stuyvesant,	10,000	....	10,000
22	Potomska,.....	Nye,	287	Hoboken,	1854	New-Bedford,	Portland,	New-York,	Ashore on Bears' Sh'l, Monomey, July 18,	2,600	....	2,600
									4 Steamers,.....Totals,	$ 39,400	$ 10,000	$ 49,400
	SHIPS.											
20	Argonout,.....	Norton,	570	Medford,	1849	Boston,	Boston,	Shanghae,	T'w'd in Singapore May 19, col. with St. M.	$ 5,000	....	$ 5,000
30	Alfred Hill,.....	Morse,	549	Chelsea,	1854	Bath, Me.,	Boston,	Hong Kong,	Lost on the Prata Shoals, May 15,	25,000	$ 40,000	65,000
9	Edgar Stringer,...	Wood,	1352	Bath, Me.,	1854	Newport, E.,	Newport, E.	Madras,	Sunk 175 miles S.E. Pernambuco, May 29,	52,000	63,500	115,500
11	Emily Farnum,...	Simes,	1119	Portsmouth,	1854	London,	Portsmouth,	Calcutta,	Ashore 30 miles N. Pernambuco, June 8,	1,000	....	1,000
17	Ethan Allen,.....	Lindburg,	556	East Boston,	1858	Boston,	Cronstadt,	Boston,	Put into Elsinore in distress, June 29,	6,000	2,000	8,000
4	Elizabeth Kimbal,	Wilson,	998	Beverly, Mass.	1853	Beverly, Mass.	Callao,	Cork,	Put into Valparaiso in distress, May 29,	7,600	4,000	11,600
18	Golden Rocket,...	Powers,	608	Bangor, Me.,	1858	Bangor,	Havana,	Cienfuegos,	Total loss, burnt by privateer Jeff. Davis,	35,000	....	35,000
20	J. Wakefield,.....	Howe,	1225	Rockland,	1854	Rockland,	Cardiff,	Shanghae,	Put into Queenstown, leaky, June 26,	3,700	1,000	4,700
6	Lawson,.....	D. Wright,	597	Bath, Me.,	1855	Puget Sound,	Puget Sound,	Toulon,	Total loss by fire at Toulon,	30,000	18,000	48,000
29	Live Yankee,.....	Boyle,	1637	Rockland,	1853	New-York,	Cardiff,	Kurrachee,	Lost on the Brazilian coast, June 26,	65,000	10,000	75,000
30	Maggie Carle,(Br.)	Craig,	592	Wiscassett,	1847	Liverpool, En.	Liverpool,	Baltimore,	Ashore in Chesapeake B., July 25, tot. loss	10,000	3,000	13,000
11	Middlesex,..	Merrill,	496	Medford,	1840	Princetown,	St. Johns, N B.	Queenstown,	Put into Halifax, leaky, June 24,	3,500	1,000	4,500
22	Santiago, (Br.)....	Davison,	855	Guernsey,	1845	England,	Tome,	Liverpool,	Put in Falkland Is., fore c'mp'rt full wat'r,	6,000	10,000	16,000
31	Star of Hope,.....	Pearson,	1198	Portsmouth,	1855	Newburyport,	London,	Calcutta,	Abandoned at sea, June 15,	50,000	60,000	110,000
30	Wm. Witherel,...	Atwood,	875	Castine, Me.,	1851	Castine,	Boston,	London,	Put in Portland, July 29, lost topmasts, &c	1,200	....	1,200
									15 Ships,.....Totals,	$ 301,000	$ 212,500	$ 513,500

MARINE LOSSES FOR JULY, 1861. (CONTINUED.)

DATE.	BARKS.	MASTER.	TONS.	WHERE BUILT.	YEAR.	HAIL FROM.	WHERE FROM.	WHERE TO.	DISASTERS.	LOSS ON VESSEL.	LOSS ON CARGO.	TOTAL LOSSES.
20	Arctic,	Cutler,	489	Richmond,	1851	Boston,	Liverpool,	Havana,	Ash. Chesapeake S'nd, July 8, Nassau, c.,	$16,000	$10,000	$26,000
6	Edward Hill,	J. H. Avery,	499	Warren, R. I.,	1856	Newbury,	Boston,	New-York,	Burnt at Boston, July 4,	2,500	....	2,500
24	Iola Wylie,	Patterson,	385	Warren, Me.,	1856	Warren, Me.,	Bordeaux,	Hussam,	Collision and sunk, July 6, total loss,	17,500	26,000	43,500
17	J. Cockerell, (Br.)	Ambrose,	353	Sunderland,	1851	London,	New-York,	London,	Put back to N.Y., 180 m. E. Sandy H., l'ky,	6,000	7,500	13,500
4	Mystery,	Taylor,	328	Duxbury, Mass	1854	Boston,	Boston,	In port,	Burnt at Boston, July 4,	14,000	....	14,000
20	Mary R. Barny,	Robins,	280	Warren, R. I.,	1854	Fall River,	Havana,	Falmouth, E.,	Put into Bermuda in distress, June 8,	2,500	3,000	5,500
18	Sarah Sheaf,	Chase,	402	Portsmouth,	1824	Boston,	Buenos Ayres,	Cork,	Put into Baltimore in distress, condemned	7,500	6,000	13,500
16	Young Greek,	Taylor,	460	Medford,	1855	Caldera,	Caldera,	Baltimore,	Ashore on Wolf Trap, Chesapeake B. (off,)	1,000	2,500	3,500
									8 Barks, ... Totals,	$67,000	$55,000	$122,000
	BRIGS.											
12	Altevela,	Reed,	198	Searsport, Me.	1853	Searsport,	Trinidad,	Philadelphia,	Ashore near Cape Henelopen,	$1,800	$2,000	$3,800
27	Creole, (Br.)	Robinson,	236	E. Boston,	1850	Belize, Hond.,	New-York,	Belize,	Abd. in hurricane, lat. 31 28, long. 72 12,	9,000	10,000	19,000
23	Costa Rica,	Chapman,	260	Portsmouth,	1857	New-York,	Philadelphia,	Havana,	Put back to Philadelphia, cond. and sold,	2,600	....	2,600
17	Elizabeth, (Br.)	Sturtevant,	273	Portsmouth,	1854	New-York,	Kingston, Ja.,	New-York,	On a reef off Cuba, condemned,	4,500	6,000	10,500
22	Errichita, (Ital.)	M. Russo,	300	Sarrente,	1860	Naples,	New-York,	In port,	On fire, foot Clinton-st., East River, July,	3,700	2,000	5,700
4	Fanny O. Field,	Herriman,	198	Prospect, Me.,	1854	Prospect,	Boston,	In port,	Burnt at Boston, July 4,	8,000	....	8,000
17	Gloria, (Br.)	Lecroix,	235	Uckermunde,	1858	Jersey,	Rio Janeiro,	Baltimore,	Ashore near Carrituck, N. C., July 4, con.	10,000	5,000	15,000
4	H. Matthews,	Lampher,	240	Searsport,	1849	Boston,	Boston,	In port,	Burnt at Boston, July 4,	7,000	....	7,000
27	John Jeffrey,	R. N. Seely,	195	Bangor,	1859	Bangor,	New-York,	Rio Grande,	Dmgd in gale, stove galley, cabin doors,	1,000	....	1,000
18	J. Nickerson,	Evans,	198	Fall River,	1847	Boston,	Lisbon,	Rio Grande,	Ab'd and sunk, 12 miles N.E. Pt. Anago,	3,500	7,000	10,500
3	Julia,	Phinney,	300	New-London,	1861	New-York,	Aspinwall,	Cuba,	Ashore near Punta Luena Reef, total loss,	15,000	....	15,000
2	Medford,	Cook,	108	Medford,	1844	Boston,	Boston,	Fayal,	Put into Fayal, leaky, and condemned,	5,000	....	5,000
4	Orilla,	S. P. Griffin,	298	Prospect, Me.,	1855	Stockton,	Boston,	In port,	Burnt at Boston, July 4,	7,000	....	7,000
13	Orient,	Page,	176	St. Peters Bay,	1851	Pictou, N. S.,	St. Jago, Cuba,	New-York,	Ashore at Bird Rock, May 3, condemned,	7,500	16,000	23,500
20	Ornen,	Hansen,	264	Riscer,	1836	Norway,	Montreal,	Bristol, Eng.,	Col. and sunk, June 23,	8,000	7,000	15,000
26	S. P. Brown,	Hammond,	181	Orland,	1850	Newport, R. I.	Liverpool,	Providence,	Put into Queenstown for repairs,	800	....	800
									16 Brigs, ... Totals,	$94,400	$55,000	$149,400
	SCHOONERS.											
26	Benj. S. Wright,	Brown,	120	Frankfort,	1859	Frankfort,	Gloucester,	Fishing,	Put into Gloucester for rep., col. July 23,	$600	....	$600
27	Bodwich,	Perkins,	97	Castine, Me.,	1858	Castine, Me.,	New-York,	St. Ann's Bay,	Abandoned in a hurricane, July 10,	3,000	$9,000	12,000
26	Chas. S. Carstairs,	Naylor,	254	Pocomoke,	1854	Philadelphia,	Boston,	Philadelphia,	Ashore on Rainford Island Rocks, (off,)	3,700	2,000	5,700
1	Christiana Keen,	Stacey,	218	Perth Amboy,	1857	Perth Amboy,	.....	.....	Total loss, burnt by secessionists,	9,000	....	9,000
4	Dashaway,	Littlefield,	177	Surrey, Me.,	1855	Surrey, Me.,	Boston,	In port,	Burnt at Boston, July 4,	7,500	....	7,500
4	Energy,	J. Mitchell,	67	Maine,	1859	St. Georges, Me	St. Georges, Me	Boston,	Missing since May 27,	1,500	....	1,500
9	Emily C. Horton,	Deming,	110	Cape May,	1846	New-York,	Port Ewing,	New-Bedford,	Col. with Str. Metropolis, sunk, July 7,	1,800	750	2,550

20	Envoy,	Low,	110	Damariscotta,	1849	Boston,	New-York,	Boston,	Sprung aleak, ash. Vineyard Sd., July 17,	$1,000	$2,600	$3,600
18	Exchange,	Fuller,	100	N. Providence	1840	Baltimore,	Rio Grande,	New-York,	Put in Rio Janeiro, leaky, June 4, cond.,	1,200	1,000	2,200
4	F. A. Hawkins,	Mayo,	122	Noank, L. I.,	1848	Eastham,	Boston,	In port,	Burnt at Boston, July 4,	3,000	....	3,000
22	George S. Green,	Cobb,	281	Wilmington,	1858	Wellfleet,	Boston,	Philadelphia,	Col. July 19, lost jackstays, davits & boat,	500	....	500
15	Gen. Veaze,	Gallagher,	132	Hampden,	1851	Port au Prince	Port au Prince	Boston,	Total loss at Bird Rock, June 28,	4,500	8,000	12,500
20	Gertrude Horton,	Pendleton,	125	Rockland,	1846	Rockland, Me.,	New-York,	Portsmouth,	Col. Str. Pennsylvania, put in N.Haven,	1,000	....	1,000
18	Harriet,	Young,	147	Trenton, Me.,	1854	Trenton,	Trenton, Me.,	Gibraltar,	Condemned at Gibraltar, June 12,	3,000	....	3,000
20	Harvest Home,	Forbes,	90	Essex, Mass.,	1856	Gloucester,	Gloucester,	Georges Bank,	Collision, lost chainplates, rail, &c.,	250	....	250
27	Jane N. Baker,	Handy,	270	New-Jersey,	1854	Philadelphia,	Philadelphia,	Key West,	Put back, damaged in hurricane, July 23,	1,800	....	1,800
4	M. A. McNeil,	Kelly,	280	Camden, N. J.	1858	Boston,	Mobile,	Boston,	Burnt at Boston, July 4,	6,500	....	6,500
31	Nerissa,	Bagnes,	96	Baltimore,	1849	Hingham,	Turk's Island,	Boston,	Put back to Grand Turk, cond. and sold,	1,000	300	1,300
8	Only Son,	Jas. Fraser,	138	Barnstable,	1840	Pittston, Me.,	Bridgei'n, N.S.	Boston,	Missing since April 5,	1,600	400	2,000
8	Red Rover,	Baker,	90	Kingston,	1838	Belfast,	Penobscot Riv	.....	Ashore at Hampden,	500	....	500
20	Rachel S. Miller,	Henderson,	195	Philadelphia,	....	Philadelphia,	Philadelphia,	Salem,	Ashore at Block Island, July 10, (off,)	600	....	600
23	Rolla,	Bambrick,	84	Essex,	1857	Gloucester,	Gloucester,	Fishing,	Missing since June 16,	3,000	....	3,000
18	Seeing,	Sofford,	158	Currituck,	1853	Baltimore,	Baltimore,	Kennebunk,	Put into New-York in distress,	1,700	....	1,700
22	Stony Brk. Packet,	(Sloop,)	..	.....	....	.....	Elizabethport,	Providence,	Total loss at Walch Hill, July 15,	1,200	400	1,600
27	Tamaulipas,	Buckley,	199	Greenport,	1859	Greenport,	Matanzas,	Falmouth, E.,	Put into Halifax, July 21, foremast sprung	1,200	....	1,200
4	Quindaro,	Walls,	283	Ellsworth,	1857	Ellsworth,	Trinidad, Cuba	Cork,	At Boston in distress, and burnt July 4,	9,000	....	9,000
20	Valorous, (Br.)	Wilson,	100	Lunenburg,	1860	Lunenburg,	Cienfuegos,	Halifax,	Ashore on the Isle of Pines, June 27,	1,500	2,600	4,100
									26 Schooners, ... Totals,	$71,150	$27,050	$98,200

RECAPITULATION OF LOSSES FOR THE YEAR 1861.

NO. OF DISAS.	APRIL, 1861.	LOSS ON VESSEL AND FREIGHT.	LOSS ON CARGO.	TOTAL.	NO. OF DISAS.	MAY, 1861.	LOSS ON VESSEL AND FREIGHT.	LOSS ON CARGO.	TOTAL.
4	Steamers,	$23,500	$24,000	$47,500	5	Steamers,	$307,000	$159,000	$466,000
25	Ships,	482,300	354,500	786,800	26	Ships,	563,000	1,096,500	1,659,500
20	Barks,	168,300	179,600	347,900	16	Barks,	131,800	187,100	318,900
20	Brigs,	66,700	130,100	196,800	17	Brigs,	120,300	127,700	247,900
42	Schooners,	87,300	151,250	238,550	32	Schooners,	67,300	66,000	133,300
111		$778,100	$839,450	$1,617,550	96		$1,189,300	$1,636,300	$2,825,600
	JUNE, 1861.					JULY, 1861.			
2	Steamers,	$425,000	$100,000	$525,000	4	Steamers,	$39,400	$10,000	$49,400
5	Ships,	31,000	14,000	45,000	15	Ships,	301,000	212,500	513,500
10	Barks,	115,000	83,700	198,700	8	Barks,	67,000	55,000	122,000
8	Brigs,	43,400	40,000	83,400	16	Brigs,	94,400	55,000	149,400
10	Schooners,	43,700	27,700	71,400	26	Schooners,	71,150	27,050	98,200
35		$658,100	$265,400	$923,500	69		$572,950	$359,550	$932,500

RAIL-ROAD AND TELEGRAPH STATISTICS.

I. The Telegraph from Moscow to New-York. II. British Railway Statistics. III. New Route from Europe to India. IV. Important to Railway Companies. V. Steam on Common Roads. VI. The Pacific Telegraph. VII. The Atlantic Cable.

THE RUSSIAN PACIFIC TELEGRAPH.

The plan for establishing a telegraphic line connecting Europe through Siberia with the Pacific Ocean has, during four years, had time to take shape and form, so that, at the commencement of the present year, the supreme sanction was given to the project for constructing a telegraphic line in the counties bordering on the Amoor and Oussouri, from Nikolaiewsk by Kabarovka to the port of Novgorod, (1,900 versts,) the most important point of the possessions recently annexed to Russia on the sea of Japan. The establishment of this line is undertaken by the Ministry of Marine at its cost and under its direction; and at the same time the superior direction of the means of communication (Board of Works) has commenced the construction of a line starting from Kasan in the direction of Siberia, which proposes opening at the end of the present year a telegraphic communication from Kasan to Omsk, (1,900 versts,) and continue it afterwards to Irkutsk, a distance of 2,475 versts from Omsk. Thus, probably within two or three years, on the one side there will be telegraphic communication between Europe and Asia to Irkutsk, and, on the other hand, our new colonies on the Amoor and Oussouri will be connected with each other, and with our principal ports on the Japanese waters. Thus of the extent of 10,000 versts, which the Siberian telegraph will embrace, there only remains the central portion, that of Irkutsk by Kyachta to Kabarovka, about 3,500 versts, where as yet nothing has been settled; but it is beyond a doubt that as soon as the works actually projected shall have been successfully completed, this intermediate line will be constructed, and thus, within four or five years at the latest, the gigantic project of a telegraph from Europe to the distant lands on the shores of the Pacific Ocean will be realized. The year 1861 promises to be a memorable one, if we consider the great questions which will receive a solution. Among those questions we must place the commencement of a durable connection and the establishment of rapid communication between Siberia and civilized Europe, and the apparatus of the electric telegraph on the virgin shores of the Amoor and Sea of Japan. It seems needless to point out the importance and usefulness of so vast an extension of improved communication by the promoters of civilization and commerce.—*St. Petersburgh Gazette.*

Colonel Romanoff, of the imperial Russian engineers, was introduced to the members of the New-York Chamber of Commerce, October 11th, to lay before them the project of a telegraph line to run from St. Petersburgh to some point on the eastern shore of Siberia, and from thence to the Russian possessions on this continent.

The great overland telegraph to be erected will, when completed, form a direct chain of communication throughout the world. It was first started in accordance with an ukase from the Emperor of Russia, issued in 1858, since which time three thousand miles of it have been laid from St. Petersburgh to Omsk, in Eastern Siberia. Moscow, three thousand five hundred miles from that point, will be the principal station. The wires will go over Behring's Straits, a distance of forty miles, the currents of which depend on the winds, and are never beyond three miles. The widest gap in the Straits is eight miles. The line will cross from Omsk to Orkutsk, thence to Kyachta—the great *entrepôt* of commerce from Siberia to China; from that point it will be continued to the Altai Mountains to Cheta, and thence to Nicoleisk, at the mouth of the Amoor River. This will end the Russian project which has been guaranteed by the government. The propriety of continuing the line to the United States is now under advisement, and the project is considered easily practicable, involving only an additional outlay of $1,000,000 or $3,000,000, according to the route taken. The following table shows the number of miles to be embraced by the whole line:

	Miles.
St. Louis to San Francisco, (1,800 miles finished,).....	2,000
San Francisco to Prince of Wales' Cape,.....	2,500
Behring's Straits (submerged,).....	40
East Cape to mouth of Amoor River,.....	2,400
Amoor River to Moscow, (1,200 miles finished,).....	7,000
Total,.....	13,940

Count ROMANOFF states that the line will be completed to Irkutsh in about a year, which will enable the merchants of London to communicate with Pekin in fourteen days. It has been proposed to extend it from the mouth of the Amoor to Jeddo, Japan, which will involve but three submerges—one of six miles, one of eight and another of twelve. Count ROMANOFF also stated that the cable sunk in the Red Sea by the British government, to communicate with India, was eaten by insects, with which the water abounds, after it had successfully operated for about three months, and it is now considered impracticable to renew the enterprise at that point. The British government had appointed a commission to inquire into the causes of the failure.

American vessels frequently sail to the Amoor with spices, tea, coffee, iron, &c., and the establishment of telegraphic communication between the United States and that point, and Russia in general, must tend to increase the trade between both countries.

Col. ROMANOFF will prosecute his inquiries in the United States for about two months, and then return to Russia. Mr. COLLINS, in the mean time, will give him many of the facilities necessary to his mission.

The proposed line will unite all the telegraphs in the world, without crossing the Atlantic Ocean, so that the great "cable" enterprise need not be resuscitated. The cost is set down for two wires at $3,000,000. To maintain this line, one thousand men, at $300 each per annum, would become necessary, making a total of $300,000. To this force it is proposed to add one hundred stations, at $1,000 per annum; two supply vessels at $40,000; interest on capital at 7½ per cent. per annum, $210,000; contingencies, $100,000. Total, $750,000. It is calculated that 300,000 messages, at $5 each, would be received, making a total of $1,500,000 revenue.

BRITISH RAILWAY STATISTICS.

Returns just issued cover two years—1859 and 1860—and show the annual traffic of all kinds, and the annual working expenditure, in the bulk and in detail. The first thing we remark is the largeness of the totals, showing immense social and commercial activity. There were at the end of 1860, 10,433 miles of railway in use, or 431 miles more than in the previous year. The total passenger traffic over these lines was 163,435,678, or 13,678,384 more than in 1859. If we analyze this we find that third-class passengers constitute more than one-half of the whole, a fact pointing to the influence of low fares and the development of excursion traffic. If we take the separate returns of England, Ireland and Scotland, we find that in England the proportion of third to second-class passengers is less than two to one, whereas in Scotland it is six to one; but Ireland only one and a third to one. There would, therefore, appear to be a wide field for the development of third-class traffic in England, and still more in Ireland, while in Scotland third-class travelling is general, for even the second-class passengers are outnumbered by the first. Another characteristic of the returns is brought out by a contrast between the movement of goods and of live stock. In each of the three great divisions of the United Kingdom there was an increase of goods traffic in 1860 over goods traffic in 1859. But in the transport of live stock there was, on the whole, a decided falling off. Fewer cattle, fewer sheep and pigs were carried over the English lines. In Scotland there was a similar decrease, except in pigs. In Ireland alone the transit of cattle exceeded that of the previous year, but the sheep and pigs were fewer. These figures speak plainly of the severity of the winter of 1859–60. In Ireland alone there were 76,520 pigs and 18,650 sheep less transported by railway than in 1859. The deficiency of traffic from these sources was made up by an increase in all others—more passengers, more minerals, more merchandise of all kinds. The figures show that the severity of the winter decreased, but did not arrest the tide of general prosperity.

The total returns from all sources of traffic in 1859 was £25,743,502, and in 1860 this was increased to £27,766,622. If we turn to the table showing the working expenditure, we find some striking figures. The actual cost of working 10,433 miles of railway in the United Kingdom is £13,189,368. In this item are included £2,437,362 for maintenance of way; £3,801,282 for locomotive power; £3,699,708 for traffic charges, (coaching and merchandise;) and no less than £181,170 for "compensation," a charge alone of 1.37 per cent. The great items of expense are thus:—maintenance of way, locomotive power and traffic charges; but repairs and renewals of carriages and wagons swallow up the £1,118,784, and there is a comprehensive item of £1,068,521 for our old acquaintance, "sundries." Thus it comes about that the proportion per cent. of expenditure to the total revenue is, in England, 48, in Scotland, 44, in Ireland, 45 per cent. Scotland, therefore, seems to have the most cheaply managed lines, and Ireland, where railways pay no government duty, exceeds by one per cent. the Scottish cost of management. These enormous figures explain the comparatively low dividends of railway companies; for the £14,561,118 available for division has to be distributed among the shareholders who have contributed the £330,000,000 of capital sunk in our railways.—*Globe.*

IMPORTANT TO RAILWAY COMPANIES.

A case of great importance to railway companies and railway travellers has been finally decided, after protracted litigation. A person named DAVID KEYS brought an action against the Belfast and Ballymena and the Londonderry and Coleraine Railway Companies for the sum of £1,890, the value of a box of watches which he had entrusted to the care of the guard, and which could not be found when he arrived at the end of his journey. The companies resisted the claim, on the ground that the plaintiff was a second-class passenger, entitled to carry only ordinary passenger's luggage, and that they could not be responsible for property not booked in their office. A jury gave KEYS a verdict for £1,261. An appeal was made to the Court of Common Pleas, which confirmed the verdict, and then to the Court of Exchequer, which agreed with the judgment of the Common Pleas. The companies then appealed to the House of Lords, who have decided that the companies were not responsible; thus reversing the judgment of the courts below, and giving a lesson to travellers not to run risks for the sake of a small charge on booking valuable parcels.

STEAM ON COMMON ROADS.

The bill to regulate the use of locomotives on common roads in England has now become law, and is expected to lead to important results in cheapening the transit of heavy goods. During the last thirty years great efforts have been made to use steam on common roads; but, incredible as it may seem in a country whose prosperity is inseparably connected with an early use of every such facility, they have been perseveringly defeated by the opposition of the local trustees, who have imposed prohibitory tolls. Two years back, an experiment to convey coal by a traction engine from Little Hulton to Manchester, a distance of seven miles, is understood to have proved not only that an immense saving could be effected, but that the wear and tear of the road was diminished; yet the toll charged amounted to 4s. per ton, against 3½d. per ton for coal drawn by horses; and this, of course, effectually prevented the introduction of the system. The new bill assimilates the tolls to be charged, in a great degree, to those charged for horse traffic; and, although it comprises various regulations, which will probably be found to be more or less needless or vexatious, it seems sufficiently wide to enable the method to have at last a fair field.—*London Times, August*, 1861.

EUPHRATES VALLEY—THE ROUTE TO INDIA.

It is not too much to say that there is no existing or projected railroad that can for a moment compare, in point of interest and importance, with that of the Euphrates Valley. It brings two quarters of the globe into juxtaposition, and three continents, Europe, Asia and Australia, into co-relation. It binds the vast population of Hindostan by an iron link with the people of Europe; it inevitably entails the colonization and civilization of the great valleys of the Euphrates and Tigris; the resusci-

tation, in a modern shape, of Babylon and Nineveh, and the re-awakening of Ctesiphon and Bagdad of old. It will also settle the mail route to and from Australia and China—an element of prosperity of very great importance—for the passenger traffic from the Australian colonies exceeds one hundred weekly, and, ere the railway can be completed, will be five times that number; of whom more than half will take the shortest route, while the number of emigrants from this country, who will prefer a passage of forty to over eighty days, may also be fairly expected to be very large.

According to Sir JOHN MACNEILL, who was assisted in the survey by Captain BURGESS and the officers of Her Majesty's steamship STROMBOLI, there is every facility for making a harbor in the vicinity of the ancient port of Sileucia, near the mouth of the Orontes, and the country *via* Antioch, Killes and Ailam, to Aleppo, ninety miles in length, presents no engineering difficulty. By making a detour, a rich settled country, dotted over with towns and villages, is accommodated, and branch lines would be unnecessary. A large traffic is already in existence, as the toll books at a bridge on the Orontes show that about 1,200 camels and horses laden pass each day. This will be the most important portion of the railway from the Mediterranean to the Persian Gulf; the link from Sileucia to Aleppo is in itself a complete work, having a port at one end and the chief emporium of Mesopotamia at the other, to which the traffic from India, Bagdad, &c., converges. Or, should the railway be carried on to the Euphrates, sixty miles beyond Aleppo, by the route recommended by General CHESNEY and Sir JOHN MACNEILL, there would be a still more perfect work of about one hundred and fifty miles in length, beginning at a port in a great sea and ending at the head of a navigable river in a greater ocean. This would be of itself, and by itself, a complete, perfect and profitable enterprise; not only would a new country be opened up to European enterprise, but a directness in the route to India obtained, which few would believe who do not work it out on the map.

Taking the line of the Austrian railways to Trieste; thence by rail to Jabor Castle, down the stream of the Euphrates and by the Persian Gulf to Kurrachee, where the Scinde, the first complete Indian project, commences the future network of Indian lines, the traveller will follow a route as direct as any railway can be expected to afford. Eight days and six hours will take the traveller through Trieste to Sileucia; thence the railway will take him, in five hours, to the head of the navigable waters of the Euphrates. Three days and three hours more will see the river voyage completed to Bussorah; and three more days—making in all fourteen—bring the traveller to Kurrachee, where the Scinde keeps the western door of the railways of our Indian empire. Like most of the other railways for which India is indebted to Mr. ANDREW, this line from Sileucia to Jabor Castle, though complete in itself, is regarded by him as the parent of further projects, whose construction will depend on the success of the parent line, and will gradually lessen the distance between the Mediterranean and the Persian Gulf. Thus he would extend his works by degrees along the valley of the river by Phumsah, the ancient Thapsacus; cross thence into Mesopotamia, working down the valley by Annah and Hit to the environs of Bagdad, and thence by Babylon and Hillah to the point where the Tigris and the Euphrates

join at Kurnah, and the united stream becomes deep enough for steamers of the largest size. Other branches, too, might top the Persian Gulf at Scherster, or at Bussorah, where the trade is extensive, and the accommodation for ships of large tonnage already ample.—*London and China Telegraph.*

THE TELEGRAPH TO THE PACIFIC.

According to recent accounts of the progress of the Pacific Telegraph line west of Great Salt Lake City, it appears probable that the entire line will be in full operation in November, 1861. It is the intention to establish twenty regular operating offices between Salt Lake and the frontier offices, to be ever prepared for accident or unfortunate malice that might cut the line. It is said that the Mormon chief and his counsellors and immediate friends have turned on this Western line every team and man at their disposal, to secure the completion of it before the first fall of snow, if possible. The line was completed from Fort Kearney to Julesburg in October, making 350 miles from Fort Kearney and 1,050 from St. Louis. The section between Julesburg and Salt Lake City was in operation on the 18th of October. From Fort Churchill, in the Territory of Nevada, to which the lines already extend from the Pacific coast, the gap towards Salt Lake City is rapidly closing, and the western section will doubtless be completed as soon as the eastern section. The only hindrance yet caused by the war has been the necessity of sending wire, for about 200 miles of the line, around by way of Nevada, instead of through Missouri.

THE ATLANTIC CABLE.

The report of the Atlantic Telegraph Company states that in the cable recovered and brought home by Captain KELL, there was not the slightest symptom of deterioration or decay in the gutta percha. It had been subjected to a very severe electrical test, and a comparison between its present state of insulation and the records of original tests of the most perfect portions of the cable when it left the gutta-percha works, three years ago, showed that an actual improvement had taken place in its condition since it was laid down.—*Chemical News.*

THE MALTA AND ALEXANDRIA CABLE.

The following is an extract from a letter dated Malta, June 8th: "The first section of the Malta and Alexandria cable, 230 miles in length, was laid without a single accident or check of any description. After joining the cable to the shore end at Tripoli, which had been previously laid by the steam-tug BULLDOG, despatched a week in advance, the MALACCA, accompanied by the MEDINA and SCOURGE, proceeded along the coast eastward towards Benghazi, which is to be the next station. Nearly 300 miles more of cable were thus laid eastward, forming a part of the second section, the end being hermetically sealed, carried into shallow water and buoyed. This operation was as successfully performed as the first. The entire length of between 500 and 600 miles has since been carefully tested, and found to work admirably it is even said, with a smaller amount of electric power than any cable yet submerged.

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

I. The Lake Trade. II. Commerce of Buffalo. III. The Cork Trade. IV. Trade of Turkey. V. Exports of Penang. VI. Trade and Navigation of France. VII. The Linen Trade. VIII. China Trade. IX. The Tobacco Trade. X. Philadelphia Grain Market. XI. Price of Potatoes, 1854—1861. XII. Bangor Lumber Market.

THE LAKE TRADE.

The statistics of vessels arriving and clearing at Buffalo during the quarter ending September 30, 1861, make up a larger exhibit than has ever before been recorded in the history of that city for a single quarter. The figures are as follows:

	Vessels.	*Tonnage.*	*No. Crews.*
Entered,.....	2,320	837,957	24,630
Cleared,.....	2,297	825,345	25,285
Aggregate,.....	4,617	1,663,302	49,905

The following is a statement of the number of vessels which have passed by or in the vicinity of the light-house at Wind Mill Point during the quarter ending September 30th, 1861: Barks, 189; brigs, 177; schooners, 1,449; sloops, 189; steamers, 799. Total, 2,797. The greatest number of vessels passed in one day is 114.

The Secretary of the Treasury has forwarded the following circular to collectors at the lake ports:

"*Treasury Department, August* 16, 1861.

"Sir,—I have been officially informed that it is customary at several ports on the lakes to issue clearances to vessels after their departure, and to send them by mail to the masters, so that they may receive the same on arrival at the place of destination. A rigid enforcement of the strict letter of existing laws, not adapted, in some respects, to the peculiar exigencies of the trade on the lakes, would doubtless place it under many embarrassing restrictions. I can, therefore, perceive no objection to officers of the customs extending every facility and convenience consistent with the laws, and not incompatible with the interests of the revenue.

"The practice, however, of granting clearances under the circumstances stated, involves a serious departure from the law, and you are accordingly directed immediately to discontinue the same if prevailing at your ports, and to conform to the sixteenth and seventeenth sections of the Coasting Act of 1793, and insist upon a faithful compliance therewith by the masters of the vessels engaged in the trade between the several ports of the United States on the lakes.

"I am, very respectfully,

"S. P. Chase, *Secretary of the Treasury.*"

COMMERCE OF BUFFALO.

The following comparative table shows the receipts of lake flour and grain at Buffalo for the month of September in each of the following years:

	1859.		1860.		1861.
Flour,.....bbls.	236,399	....	194,092	....	328,611
Wheat,.....bush.	1,600,856	....	4,803,939	....	3,983,612
Corn,.....bush.	290,148	....	1,316,342	....	4,741,141
Oats,.....bush.	148,961	....	133,209	....	336,801
Barley,.....bush.	18,905	....	69,098	....	8,673
Rye,.....bush.	27,710	....	2,535	....	29,593
Totals grain one month,	2,086,575	....	6,325,123	....	9,099,820

And from the opening of navigation to September 30th, in the years

	1859.		1860.		1861.
Flour,.....bbls.	876,934	....	729,322	....	1,338,414
Wheat,.....bush.	3,571,402	....	9,772,250	....	15,539,364
Corn,.....bush.	2,393,977	....	9,995,763	....	15,227,596
Oats,.....bush.	725,297	....	857,832	....	1,643,024
Barley,.....bush.	78,343	....	78,766	....	115,098
Rye,.....bush.	40,264	....	35,567	....	268,193
Total grain,.....	6,809,283	....	20,690,178	....	32,793,275

THE CORK TRADE.

The cork trade in Portugal is reported to be on the increase. The annual exportation now amounts to upwards of 10,000,000f. It takes place principally from Sines, the only port of the province of Alemtejo, where the largest quantity of cork trees grow. The greatest amount is sent to London, where, on the average, the consumption amounts to 10,000 lbs. per day of Portuguese corks. A considerable quantity is also sent to France, America and the Baltic. The Portuguese cork is inferior to the French, but superior to that of Italy.

THE TRADE OF TURKEY.

The following statistics relative to the trade of the Turkish empire are not without interest: The general trade of Turkey with foreign countries amounts to about £41,000,000 sterling. Its traffic with Great Britain and France amounts to about 40 per cent. of its entire foreign trade. That with Austria, 15 per cent.; with other parts of Germany, 10; with Russia, 5; Belgium, 2; and all other countries, 28 per cent. In 1857 the trade between Turkey and France amounted, for exports, to 84,901,748f., and for imports to 110,422,893f. In the year 1858 the imports amounted to only 84,901,748f., and the exports to 69,923,746f. France has chiefly imported from Turkey corn, raw silk, cocoons, silk-worms' eggs, wool, cotton and seeds for crushing. The exports from France to Turkey consist of stuffs, refined sugar, dressed skins, with a variety of manufactured goods. Turkey supplied France, within the 19 years between 1841 and 1859, with 300,000,000f. worth of corn, equal to about 21 per cent. of the entire of the exports from that country during the same period.

EXPORTS FROM PENANG TO THE UNITED STATES,

FOR THE YEARS 1859 AND 1860.

Articles.	1860.	1859.	*Articles.*	1860.	1859.
Camphor,.....cases,	....	261	Sugar,.....piculs,	9,051	3,447
Cinnamon,.....piculs,	41	22	Tapioca,.....	3,268	1,480
Cutch,.....	6,791	4,066	Tin,.....	22,138	17,370
Gum Benjamin,.....	22	47	Tortoise Shell,.....	1	....
Gutta Percha,.....	103	....	Essential Oil,.....cases,	....	22
Hides,.....	2,648	3,909	Cassia,.....	....	109
Horns,.....	....	11	Tea,.....bxs.,	....	67
India Rubber,.....	3,178	1,521	China,.....piculs,	....	55
Mace,.....	287	244	Wild Cinnamon,.....	....	47½
Nutmegs,.....	2,390	7,556	Fire Crackers,.....bxs.,	....	68
Black Pepper, ...	20,627	38,510	Gum Damar,.....piculs,	....	5
White Pepper,.....	....	18	Pepper,.....bags,	....	25
Ratan,.....	3,243	2,580	Mace Paste,.....case,	....	1
Rum,.....galls.,	....	60	Ratan Chairs,.....No.,	....	8

TRADE AND NAVIGATION OF FRANCE.

The French Board of Trade returns for the first quarter of this year give the duties on imports at 25,931,000f., against 38,346,000f. in the corresponding period in 1860, and 41,991,000f. in 1859, showing a considerable falling off, arising from alterations in the tariff, in accordance with the Anglo-French commercial treaty. At the same time, however, there is a considerable increase in the quantities of imported produce and manufactures, such as wines, spirits, cocoa, coffee, grain and flour, cochineal, cotton, oil-seeds, tallow and lard, coal, coke, wool and machinery. The latter has increased in value from 870,290f. last year, to 1,643,980f. this year; pig iron from England from 62,364 quintals last year, has increased to 164,255 quintals; copper from England from 13,601 quintals last year has increased to 24,518 quintals; lead, zinc, salt, from 87 quintals last year from England, has increased to 5,739 quintals. Sugars, both foreign and colonial, and flax and hemp fabrics.

The exports from France show a falling off this year, as compared with last year, in oxen and sheep, inferior wines, grain, flour, machinery, millinery, porcelain, salt, refined sugar, glass; but there is an increase in woollen fabrics and oil-cake.

The returns relating to shipping give the following results:

FRENCH VESSELS.

1st quarter.	*Inwards.*		*Outwards.*
1861,.....	370,184	....	318,718
1860,.....	324,941	....	316,675
1859,.....	343,659	....	344,416

FOREIGN VESSELS.

1861,.....	511,666	....	289,559
1860,.....	511,406	....	345,984
1859,.....	484,304	....	363,677

Although foreign trade in France continues to be in a depressed state, the increased receipts of the railway companies indicate an improvement in the home trade. Accounts from St. Dizier mention a brisk demand for cast iron, of which 1,200,000 kilogrammes were disposed of within a

few days. The price, which a short time since was only 121f., rose to 125f. This rise in the present dull season astonishes some parties. The depression in the foreign trade is attributed in a great measure to the civil war in the United States. This assertion is confirmed by the official returns, which show that the exportation of wine to the States has declined during the present year to 63,759 hectolitres from 131,000 hectolitres in the corresponding period of the year 1859; brandy, to 13,428 hectolitres from 50,297; millinery, the value reduced to 112,521f. from 547,862f. The export of silks from France, which in the corresponding period of the year 1859 amounted to 20,719 metrical quintals of 224½ pounds weight, has, during the present year, declined to 15,903. The metrical quintal of silk is worth 10,000f., which makes a diminution of nearly 150,000,000f. in that article alone.

THE LINEN TRADE.

EXPORTS OF LINENS FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM FOR THE SIX MONTHS ENDING JULY 30.

To	1859.	1860.	1861.
Hanse Towns,.....yards,	3,583,366	5,154,565	5,560,246
United States,.....	31,170,751	23,815,079	12,059,993
Cuba,.....	5,188,146	4,022,631	4,431,291
St. Thomas,.....	933,044	707,005	1,709,607
Brazil,.....	4,909,415	4,544,674	4,688,841
British West Indies,.....	1,770,583	2,469,916	2,336,941
British East Indies,.....	1,392,850	1,336,577	1,453,381
Australia,.....	1,920,652	2,612,291	2,134,231
Other countries,.....	14,738,163	17,102,190	26,478,059
Total yards,.....	65,606,970	60,764,918	60,852,590

CHINA TRADE.

From New-Chwang, the newly-opened port in Manchuria, accounts have been received, describing it as situated in a low, flat, swampy country. The town stands on a creek eight miles from the main river, and eighty from its mouth. It is approached by a very tortuous river, which is full of sand banks. About fifteen miles below New-Chwang, the river forms into two branches, one of which, called Wy-leaou-ho, runs on about 330 miles to Le-mun-tun, a place of great trade. The other branch, called the Le-leaou-ho, goes on to Mard-ka. At Tai-tsze, the Tien-tsin and Shangtung junks load, while those from Ningpo and Shanghai load at Yenko. There is a large junk trade at both these places, which export peas, beans, tobacco, pea-cake, oil and drugs. Yenko is a filthy place of mud huts, built in a swamp, the streets so full of uncleanliness that it is difficult to walk about, and nothing is to be seen but poverty and dirt; the country all around is flat, with not a blade of grass to relieve the eye. Cattle, and a few fruits, are procurable with difficulty. Altogether, the prospects of this port are not encouraging.

THE TOBACCO TRADE.

The last annual report on foreign commerce from the State Department gives very full and explicit information upon the subject of the

growth, manufacture and consumption of tobacco in foreign countries, where we have also a market for our own tobacco. The low prices of the wine crop for some years, and also the failures of that crop, induced many large owners of vineyards in Germany to convert, at a great expense, their vineyards into tobacco fields, tobacco then bearing a good price. But the last three years have proved good wine years, and the prices of tobacco have been considerably reduced. So the tobacco fields are being turned back into vineyards.

German tobacco has been bought by American speculators and exported to the United States, where it is manufactured into segars and reexported to Europe as American tobacco. The American traders found after awhile that they were not buying even German tobacco, but beet and turnip leaves, with which it is extensively adulterated. German segars, made partly of beet and turnip leaves, are also exported into the United States and to other countries. Belgium and Holland and the Zollverein are the chief consumers of the beet and turnip-leaf tobacco, and the article stands in the way of the consumption of the pure American tobacco. The quantity of German tobacco now on hand, including the beet and turnip-leaf crops, is represented as immense. It is held back for higher prices. One single house has five hundred quintals of leaves on hand, waiting for a rise in the leaf market.

The American tobacco which is manufactured into snuff is mixed with five per cent. of German tobacco, in consequence of which, all snuff manufactured at Bingen, &c., is subject to a transit duty when exported to Northern Germany. Thus the American tobacco, which has already paid duty, pays duty a second time.

In this report there are fifty consular despatches respecting the tobacco trade of the United States in various parts of the world. The tariffs upon tobacco, and the monopoly regulations concerning it, and laws affecting its price to the consumer, are given in this report with much detail.—*National Intelligencer.*

PHILADELPHIA GRAIN MARKET.

	Sept. 28, 1858.		*Sept.* 28, 1859.		*Sept.* 28, 1860.		*Sept.* 28, 1861.	
Flour, (extra,)....per bbl.	$5 50	....	$5 50	....	$5 88	....	$5 50	
Flour, (superfine,) "	5 37	....	4 87	....	5 62	....	5 25	
Rye flour,..... "	4 00	....	4 00	....	4 25	....	3 25	
Corn meal,..... "	4 00	....	3 50	....	3 50	....	2 81	
Corn, (yellow,)...per bush.	93	....	....	....	75	....	56	
Corn, (white,).... "	83	....	....	....	73	....	54½	
Oats, ... "	44	....	40	....	36	....	31	
Rye,..... "	83	....	85	....	80	....	60	
Wheat, (red,).... "	1 30	....	....	....	1 33	....	1 24	
Wheat, (white,)... "	1 40	....	....	....	1 45	....	1 35	

PRICE OF POTATOES FROM 1854 TO 1861.

The following table, carefully prepared for the *American Agriculturist*, by Mr. HENRY B. WALKER, a large dealer in New-York, will be found interesting and useful. The statistics have reference to the best potatoes at wholesale prices; it will be noticed that the price has fallen every year, with but one exception, since 1854:

AVERAGE PRICE OF POTATOES PER BUSHEL.

	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
January,	$1 07	$1 22	$0 72	$0 97	$0 91	$0 93	$0 45
February,	1 18	1 25	72	1 03	1 00	58	58
March,	1 12	1 25	80	1 00	88	95	64
April,	1 50	1 43	63	1 35	77	83	55
May,	1 44	1 26	60	1 41	58	68	60
June,	1 50	1 34	60	1 25	55	70	59
July,	1 00	1 00	1 00	62	61	47	63
August,	1 50	63	69	64	61	49	52
September,	1 22	69	70	83	57	50	63
October,	1 00	69	75	83	54	65	45
November,	1 89	66	84	96	53	60	64
December,	1 02	65	94	95	55	45	63
Average,	$1 22	$1 01	$0 75	$1 00	$0 72	$0 59	$0 56

BANGOR LUMBER MARKET.

Amount of lumber surveyed from January 1st to September 1st, 1861, compared with the amount surveyed during the same period in 1859 and 1860:

	1859.		1860.		1861.
Green pine, ...feet,	36,500,687	....	32,421,759	....	20,058,281
Dry pine,	6,957,048	....	6,910,215	....	5,269,408
Spruce,	50,778,315	....	60,671,908	....	43,770,971
Hemlock, &c.,	11,148,414	....	12,264,641	....	7,506,959
Total,	105,384,464	....	112,568,523	....	76,605,559

LAKE RECEIPTS OF BREADSTUFFS.

The total receipts of flour, wheat and corn, (flour reduced to wheat,) at the four leading ports, for the week ending September 21st, and since 1st January last, were as follows:

	Week ending Sept. 21.		*Since Jan. 1.*
Chicago, ...bushels,	1,702,907	....	37,679,895
Toledo,	918,783	....	10,881,914
Milwaukie,	559,640	....	9,790,671
Detroit,	250,992	....	4,886,758

BREADSTUFFS IN FRANCE.

The last important movement is thus announced under official caption in the *Moniteur*: "From the 15th of the present month (October) till the 30th of September, 1862, the cargoes of grain and flour, rice, potatoes or dry vegetables, carried on rivers and canals, not conceded to public companies, will be exempted from all internal navigation dues levied by the State. The same exemption will be extended to the dues levied on canals that have been so conceded, and which may be re-purchased, under the authority of the laws of the 28th of July and the 1st of August, 1860. Foreign vessels may, till the same date, and under the same conditions as French vessels, navigate all the rivers and canals of France exempt from these dues, wherever their cargoes may have been grown, provided they consist of grain and cereals, as specified in the former article."

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

PROGRESS OF BUSINESS—IMPORTS—EXPORTS—DOMESTIC PRODUCE—DRY GOODS TRADE—CUSTOM-HOUSE REVENUE—LARGER PORTION OF BREADSTUFFS—TABLE OF EXPORTS—GRAIN AT THE WEST—GRAIN FOR FREIGHTS—BANK LOANS—RATES OF EXCHANGE—ADVANCE IN RAIL-ROAD FREIGHTS—INCREASE OF CANAL TOLLS—TELEGRAPH COMMUNICATION—IMPORTS AND STOCKS OF SUGAR AND COFFEE—TREASURY LOAN—THE BANKING MOVEMENT—CLEARING-HOUSE FOR EIGHT YEARS.

GREAT activity has prevailed during the month in shipping at this port. The foreign demand for breadstuffs has given an impulse to prices and to freights. The canals and rail-roads are overburdened with freight for the Atlantic ports, at prices more remunerative than hitherto.

Tide-Water Receipts.—The receipts at tide-water of flour, wheat, corn and barley, for the years 1860 and 1861, have been as follows:

Nine Months.	*Flour.* bbls.	*Wheat.* bushels.	*Corn.* bushels.	*Barley.* bushels.
1860,.....	739,100	10,393,600	12,020,900	942,800
1861,.....	871,700	18,174,000	16,673,200	522,300
Increase, 1861,...	132,600	7,780,400	4,652,300	Dec. 420,500

Reducing the wheat to flour, the excess in the receipts of 1861 is equal to 1,688,680 barrels of flour.

The receipts at tide-water of the principal articles of produce, from the opening of the canals to and including October 14th, have been as follows:

CANAL OPEN,.....	1859. *April* 15.	1860. *April* 25.	1861. *May* 1.
Flour,..... bbls.,	360,000	739,100	871,700
Wheat,..... bushels,	1,745,100	10,393,600	18,174,000
Corn,..... "	2,379,000	12,020,900	16,673,200
Barley,..... "	670,900	942,800	522,300
Rye,..... "	176,700	213,800	536,200
Oats,..... "	3,425,500	4,758,800	3,806,100

The rail-roads and canals have been tested, during the last two months, to their utmost capacity. The following is the new tariff of the roads from Chicago on East-bound freights, which took effect this month:

CHICAGO TO	*4th class.*	*Flour in lots, fifty bbls. and over.*	*Wood.*
Suspension Bridge, N. Y., rail,.....	$0 45	$0 90	$0 90
Buffalo, N. Y., rail,.....	0 45	0 90	0 90
" " lake,.....	0 40	0 80	0 75
Albany and Troy, N. Y., rail,.....	0 87½	1 75	1 50
Albany, lake,.....	0 82½	1 65	1 45
New-York, rail,.....	0 90½	1 85	1 60
" lake,.....	0 87½	1 75	1 45
Boston, *via* Albany, rail,.....	0 97½	1 95	1 70
" " " lake,.....	0 92½	1 85	1 50
" " Grand Trunk, rail,.....	0 97½	1 95	1 75
Portland, rail,.....	0 97½	1 95	1 75
Pittsburg, Pa., rail,.....	0 43	0 85	0 90
" lake,.....	0 40	0 80	0 88
Philadelphia, Pa., rail,.....	0 87½	1 75	1 50
" lake,.....	0 82½	1 65	1 35

The increased business on the New-York State canals is shown in the fact that the tolls have increased twenty-five per cent. compared with last year, viz.:

April 25 to October 14, 1860,.....	$2,284,084
May 1 to October 14, 1861,.....	2,845,572

According to the official returns, the foreign imports, of all descriptions, landed at the port of New-York during the month of September, were but a little over seven millions of dollars, of which one and a quarter million were specie; so that the total imports for the month, in produce and merchandise, were but six millions of dollars, against sixteen millions for the same month in each of the last two years:

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW-YORK IN SEPTEMBER.

ENTERED.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
For consumption,..	$11,180,523 ..	$12,470,440 ..	$11,516,137 ..	$3,106,298
For warehousing,..	2,900,700 ..	2,177,966 ..	2,835,734 ..	1,390,766
Free goods,.....	1,253,829 ..	1,810,626 ..	2,652,332 ..	1,577,385
Specie and bullion,	138,243 ..	184,553 ..	255,695 ..	1,231,012
Total entered,...	$15,473,295 ..	$16,643,585 ..	$16,260,450 ..	$7,305,461
Withdrawn,.....	2,905,062 ..	2,898,441 ..	4,007,272 ..	2,938,464

This decline has excited surprise, since it is unprecedented in the history of the trade. The imports of specie from foreign ports, since January 1st, are a little over thirty-five millions. If this be deducted from the total imports, the aggregate of merchandise and produce received for nine months will fall below one hundred millions, which is but little over half the corresponding total in the last two years. We annex a comparative summary for the nine months ending October 1st:

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW-YORK FOR NINE MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

ENTERED.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
For consumption,..	$76,582,434 ..	$144,397,670 ..	$129,786,408 ..	$41,657,913
For warehousing,..	20,232,150 ..	28,351,768 ..	32,395,925 ..	34,492,899
Free goods,.....	16,552,095 ..	23,160,678 ..	21,469,063 ..	23,651,574
Specie and bullion,	2,021,173 ..	1,834,054 ..	1,147,633 ..	35,186,730
Total entered,...	$115,387,852 ..	$197,744,170 ..	$184,799,029 ..	$134,989,116
Withdrawn,.....	31,097,577 ..	20,305,309 ..	24,090,639 ..	31,549,666

This decline is a marked one throughout the year, although it is greatest for the last quarter. We have compiled a quarterly summary, leaving out the imports of specie, which have been insignificant in former seasons:

QUARTERLY STATEMENT OF FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW-YORK, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
First quarter,.....	$29,044,464 ..	$59,116,788 ..	$64,702,778 ..	$46,290,767
Second quarter,....	32,740,170 ..	70,048,086 ..	53,025,238 ..	31,658,441
Third quarter,.....	53,603,218 ..	68,579,296 ..	67,081,000 ..	21,853,178
Total, 9 months,	$115,387,852 ..	$197,744,170 ..	$184,809,016 ..	$99,802,386

The importations of foreign dry goods at New-York for the month of September were less than two millions, the bulk being in woollen goods, wanted for fall and winter consumption; the total goods on the market being only $3,403,976, or less than half what it was in the month of September, 1860. The stocks in warehouse are now much reduced, and also the stocks in first and second hands in the market.

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW-YORK FOR THE MONTH OF SEPTEMBER.

Entered for Consumption.

MANUFACTURES OF	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,	$1,910,232 ..	$2,005,381 ..	$2,431,129 ..	$943,070
Cotton,	881,692 ..	862,065 ..	746,431 ..	194,273
Silk,	2,077,708 ..	1,998,329 ..	2,039,271 ..	375,830
Flax,	404,768 ..	614,930 ..	544,315 ..	145,788
Miscellaneous,	301,912 ..	518,268 ..	512,969 ..	98,237
Total,	$5,576,307 ..	$5,990,973 ..	$6,274,115 ..	$1,757,198

Withdrawn from Warehouse.

MANUFACTURES OF	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,	$484,900 ..	$317,469 ..	$451,803 ..	$826,357
Cotton,	128,765 ..	96,581 ..	161,113 ..	209,492
Silk,	178,456 ..	76,672 ..	134,334 ..	423,973
Flax,	121,410 ..	109,614 ..	76,925 ..	155,800
Miscellaneous,	107,745 ..	40,596 ..	51,458 ..	31,156
Total,	$1,021,276 ..	$640,932 ..	$875,633 ..	$1,646,778
For consumption,	5,576,307 ..	5,990,973 ..	6,274,115 ..	1,757,198
Total on market,	$6,597,583 ..	$6,631,905 ..	$7,149,748 ..	$3,403,976

Entered for Warehousing.

MANUFACTURES OF	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,	$178,150 ..	$185,812 ..	$160,150 ..	$144,823
Cotton,	100,492 ..	115,460 ..	176,704 ..	61,368
Silk,	44,416 ..	67,446 ..	46,468 ..	99,324
Flax,	79,043 ..	130,088 ..	48,329 ..	19,957
Miscellaneous,	46,607 ..	38,287 ..	34,419 ..	19,394
Total,	$448,708 ..	$537,093 ..	$466,070 ..	$344,866
For consumption,	5,576,307 ..	5,990,973 ..	6,274,115 ..	1,757,198
Entered at port,	$6,025,015 ..	$6,528,066 ..	$6,740,185 ..	$2,102,064

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT THE PORT OF NEW-YORK FOR NINE MONTHS FROM JANUARY 1ST.

Entered for Consumption.

MANUFACTURES OF	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,	$13,890,836 ..	$28,375,357 ..	$26,379,832 ..	$7,235,754
Cotton,	7,557,996 ..	18,866,286 ..	12,653,087 ..	2,844,499
Silk,	14,459,562 ..	27,476,406 ..	28,530,675 ..	7,370,310
Flax,	3,359,963 ..	8,089,840 ..	5,428,610 ..	1,517,549
Miscellaneous,	2,698,170 ..	4,695,304 ..	4,815,331 ..	1,738,588
Total,	$41,966,527 ..	$87,503,193 ..	$77,807,535 ..	$20,706,700

Withdrawn from Warehouse.

MANUFACTURES OF	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,	$4,003,246 ..	$2,578,390 ..	$2,869,485 ..	$5,390,458
Cotton,	3,280,663 ..	1,404,902 ..	2,248,651 ..	3,748,918
Silk,	3,065,465 ..	796,003 ..	1,423,510 ..	4,381,136
Flax,	1,868,026 ..	880,313 ..	729,296 ..	1,576,928
Miscellaneous,	1,136,379 ..	354,466 ..	501,240 ..	693,767
Total,	$13,353,779 ..	$6,014,074 ..	$7,772,182 ..	$15,791,207
For consumption,	41,966,527 ..	87,503,193 ..	77,807,535 ..	20,706,700
Total on market,	$55,320,306 ..	$93,517,267 ..	$85,579,717 ..	$36,497,907

Entered for Warehousing.

Manufactures of	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,	$1,909,642 ..	$2,886,053 ..	$2,922,210 ..	$5,577,828
Cotton,	1,648,030 ..	1,264,009 ..	2,139,212 ..	3,730,936
Silk,	1,032,557 ..	734,493 ..	1,312,614 ..	4,912,349
Flax,	728,273 ..	689,330 ..	410,382 ..	1,359,351
Miscellaneous,	483,884 ..	380,879 ..	499,993 ..	866,839
Total,	$5,802,386 ..	$5,954,764 ..	$7,284,411 ..	$16,477,303
For consumption,	41,966,527 ..	87,503,193 ..	77,807,535 ..	20,706,700
Entered at port,	$47,768,913 ..	$93,457,957 ..	$85,091,946 ..	$37,184,003

The contrast for the nine months ending 1st October is still stronger, the importation of dry goods being about one-fourth the amount reported for 1859 or 1860; but the quantities withdrawn from warehouse and placed upon the market are more than double those of the nine months of 1860, thus making the total upon the market thirty-six millions, or forty-three per cent. of last year, and only thirty-nine per cent. of 1859.

The Custom-House revenue has fallen off, relatively, on the one hand, by the greater proportion of free goods landed to take advantage of the old tariff, and increased, on the other hand, by the higher rates of duty, as fixed by the tariff act of August 5, 1861, and the greater total withdrawn from warehouse. Included in the receipts from customs in September were $1,449,096 of Treasury Notes, or nearly seven-eighths of the whole amount. Of the duties since 1st January, $7,487,997, or nearly half, were paid in these government obligations. The payments in these notes are about over, as the Treasury now receives them at par for subscriptions to the new loan, and the duties will hereafter mostly be paid in specie. The cash duties received at New-York for the nine months were as follow:

Cash Duties Received at New-York for Nine Months.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
First six months,	$11,089,112 ..	$19,912,181 ..	$18,339,679 ..	$10,585,335
In July,	3,387,305 ..	4,851,246 ..	4,504,066 ..	2,069,591
In August,	3,545,119 ..	4,243,010 ..	4,496,243 ..	1,558,824
In September,	2,672,935 ..	2,908,509 ..	3,038,803 ..	1,642,382
Total, 9 months,	$20,694,472 ..	$31,514,949 ..	$30,378,781 ..	$15,856,132

The exports for September have been very large. The corresponding total last year (*i. e.*, the exports for September, 1860) was larger, exclusive of specie, than the total for any previous month of any year since New-York was settled. The advices from Europe serve to show that the export trade for the remainder of the year will be quite as heavy. It will be seen that the shipments of specie for the last month hardly amount to a noticeable item:

Exports from New-York to Foreign Ports for the Month of September.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Domestic produce,	$3,521,992 ..	$4,946,612 ..	$9,232,931 ..	$9,877,909
For. mdse., (free,)	169,863 ..	188,072 ..	46,620 ..	30,013
For. mdse., (dut.,)	204,890 ..	635,132 ..	620,394 ..	264,168
Specie and bullion,	3,239,591 ..	8,267,681 ..	3,758,734 ..	15,756
Total exports,	$7,135,836 ..	$14,037,497 ..	$13,658,679 ..	$10,187,846
Total, ex. specie,	3,896,245 ..	5,769,816 ..	9,899,945 ..	10,172,092

The exports, exclusive of specie, since January 1st, 1861, are ninety-six millions, against sixty-nine millions for the same period of last year, and forty-nine millions for the same time in 1859. We annex a comparative summary:

EXPORTS FROM NEW-YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR NINE MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Domestic produce,	$41,534,618 ..	$43,470,969 ..	$63,527,320 ..	$90,560,438
For. mdse., (free,)..	1,125,561 ..	2,327,879 ..	1,983,127 ..	1,976,632
For. mdse., (dut.,)..	2,986,672 ..	3,447,668 ..	4,136,725 ..	4,140,079
Specie and bullion,	20,602,848 ..	57,926,455 ..	39,357,284 ..	3,279,814
Total exports,..	$66,249,699 ..	$107,172,971 ..	$109,004,456 ..	$99,956,963
Total, ex. specie,	45,646,851 ..	49,246,561 ..	69,647,172 ..	96,777,149

These heavy exports are made up largely of corn, (8,613,811 bushels,) wheat, (over seventeen million bushels,) and of flour (two million barrels.) Provisions, too, form a very important part of the aggregates. Cut meats have been shipped this year to the extent of three times that of 1860, and eight times that of the corresponding period of 1859.

Receipts of Produce.—We have compiled our usual monthly summary of the movements of produce at the port of New-York. The receipts show a large increase in flour, an immense gain in the arrivals of wheat and corn, and a considerable increase, also, in meat provisions. There is, for obvious reasons, a decrease in the supply of cotton and naval stores. The following will show the comparative receipts during the first nine months in each of the last four years:

Receipts of Certain Articles of Produce at the Port of New-York for the first Nine Months of the Years 1858—1861.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Ashes,.....bbls.,	13,962 ..	17,855 ..	18,351 ..	16,092
Breadstuffs:				
Wheat flour, ... "	2,695,656 ..	1,621,732 ..	2,162,667 ..	2,933,329
Corn meal,..... "	69,797 ..	6,490 ..	86,401 ..	71,815
Wheat,.....bushels,	2,716,488 ..	1,204,541 ..	8,361,821 ..	15,752,583
Rye,..... "	288,033 ..	126,417 ..	142,552 ..	465,662
Oats,..... "	1,463,785 ..	2,255,585 ..	2,957,886 ..	2,628,509
Barley,..... "	72,203 ..	468,662 ..	421,180 ..	808,091
Corn,..... "	6,295,038 ..	2,160,723 ..	9,433,165 ..	13,470,107
Cotton,.....bales,	307,250 ..	317,082 ..	331,286 ..	242,094
Naval stores:				
Crude turpentine,..bbls.,	82,515 ..	71,490 ..	45,581 ..	32,254
Spirits " .. "	111,925 ..	116,196 ..	119,972 ..	45,081
Rosin,..... "	430,750 ..	586,834 ..	526,276 ..	193,334
Tar,..... "	29,172 ..	31,156 ..	42,759 ..	48,467
Pitch,..... "	3,270 ..	2,667 ..	5,585 ..	2,137
Provisions:				
Pork,.....pkgs.,	123,762 ..	136,557 ..	73,340 ..	89,908
Beef,..... "	34,632 ..	46,900 ..	29,868 ..	23,285
Cut meats,..... "	76,758 ..	55,206 ..	47,001 ..	72,479
Butter,..... "	258,191 ..	182,023 ..	256,683 ..	265,923
Cheese,..... "	250,769 ..	253,938 ..	428,532 ..	396,719
Lard, ...tcs. and bbls.,	80,141 ..	57,292 ..	42,517 ..	81,907
" .....kegs,	.... ..	18,970 ..	24,514 ..	35,887
Whiskey,.....bbls.,	106,991 ..	81,801 ..	140,154 ..	213,308

Exports of Certain Leading Articles of Domestic Produce from New-York to Foreign Ports for the first Nine Months of the Year.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Ashes, pots,.....bbls.,	9,834 ..	11,667 ..	12,016 ..	11,375
" pearls.,..... "	1,368 ..	1,611 ..	2,740 ..	2,560
Beeswax,.....lbs.,	162,646 ..	143,017 ..	179,669 ..	195,464
Breadstuffs:				
Wheat flour,.....bbls.,	1,139,621 ..	533,464 ..	1,188,577 ..	1,980,834
Rye flour,..... "	5,434 ..	4,287 ..	6,469 ..	8,953
Corn meal,..... "	51,980 ..	62,257 ..	72,889 ..	86,171
Wheat,.....bushels.	3,017,653 ..	33,761 ..	6,672,002 ..	17,152,838
Rye,..... "	12,487 ..	.... ..	100 ..	450,188
Oats,..... "	27,961 ..	9,208 ..	101,624 ..	145,832
Barley,..... "	.... ..	6,550 ..	8,280 ..	1,000
Corn,..... "	1,335,662 ..	168,748 ..	2,137,552 ..	8,613,811
Candles, mould,.....boxes,	43,763 ..	39,733 ..	46,734 ..	53,361
" sperm,..... "	5,942 ..	9,805 ..	15,442 ..	10,862
Coal,.....tons,	19,413 ..	49,876 ..	27,941 ..	22,723
Cotton,.....bales,	109,453 ..	149,011 ..	135,096 ..	151,334
Hay,..... "	24,258 ..	22,822 ..	16,671 ..	13,380
Hops,..... "	1,889 ..	185 ..	6,688 ..	22,142
Naval stores:				
Crude turpentine,..bbls.,	72,473 ..	65,512 ..	43,790 ..	21,565
Spirits " .. "	52,052 ..	55,511 ..	55,597 ..	18,714
Rosin,..... "	347,385 ..	457,013 ..	406,222 ..	189,166
Tar,..... "	9,552 ..	21,442 ..	20,087 ..	25,704
Pitch,..... "	3,943 ..	4,913 ..	5,013 ..	2,504
Oils:				
Whale,.....gallons,	324,328 ..	141,914 ..	248,171 ..	674,542
Sperm,..... "	863,370 ..	1,142,429 ..	955,729 ..	865,501
Lard,..... "	24,296 ..	31,797 ..	47,745 ..	92,860
Linseed,..... "	32,358 ..	23,279 ..	29,434 ..	30,137
Provisions:				
Pork,.....bbls.,	62,180 ..	107,587 ..	72,955 ..	82,721
Beef,..... "	60,473 ..	79,976 ..	30,431 ..	23,048
" .....tierces,	.... ..	.... ..	49,309 ..	24,673
Cut meats,.....lbs.,	15,148,043 ..	5,035,550 ..	13,989,922 ..	41,593,266
Butter,..... "	1,378,790 ..	2,083,874 ..	7,328,025 ..	10,843,257
Cheese,..... "	4,009,321 ..	4,786,741 ..	16,427,494 ..	21,810,952
Lard,..... "	9,940,119 ..	8,185,183 ..	15,244,519 ..	33,308,298
Rice,.....tierces,	32,209 ..	31,199 ..	20,818 ..	15,911
" .....bbls.,	.... ..	.... ..	22,696 ..	14,628
Tallow,.....lbs.,	1,111,190 ..	1,937,378 ..	9,930,606 ..	18,347,036
Tobacco, crude,.....pkgs.,	46,793 ..	52,540 ..	65,586 ..	79,684
" manuf.,.....lbs.,	3,419,750 ..	4,312,791 ..	5,261,159 ..	2,772,571
Whalebone,..... "	926,159 ..	1,483,193 ..	555,391 ..	751,163

The importations of coffee since the passage of the tariff bill have been materially below the average, viz.:

	1858.		1859.		1860.		1861.
New-York,.....tons,	30,021	....	34,633	....	22,028	....	40,029
Boston,..... "	5,006	....	5,739	....	3,697	....	3,111
Philadelphia,..... "	7,002	....	10,404	....	4,857	....	6,065
Baltimore,..... "	9,844	....	13,099	....	7,897	....	9,137
New-Orleans,..... "	13,867	....	18,463	....	12,795	....	9,620
Nine mos.,.....tons,	65,740	....	82,338	....	51,274	....	67,962
Three mos.,..... "	32,782	....	21,932	....	25,243	....	....
Twelve mos.,.....tons,	98,522	....	104,270	....	76,517	....	....
Monthly average,..... "	8,210	....	8,688	....	6,376	....	5,663

The stock of coffee at New-York on the 1st October was less than the average monthly imports of the year 1858 or 1859, viz.:

Stock of Coffee at the five principal Ports of the United States of America on the 1st of October, 1858—1861.

Stock in	Total Tons. 1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
New-York, ... tons,	1,670	6,465	866	7,140
Boston, ... "	250	835	303	985
Philadelphia, ... "	686	296	71	49
Baltimore, ... "	755	2,128	198	1,571
New-Orleans, ... "	2,500	1,786	1,286	none.
Total 1st October, ...	5,861	11,505	2,719	9,745
Increase, ...	....	....	....	4,138

European ports have five-fold the stock that our ports have.

Stocks of Coffee in the six principal Depots of Europe, up to 1st September.

Stock 1st September.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.	Average.
In Holland, ... tons,	48,950	41,550	31,500	22,150	36,037
Antwerp, ... "	3,650	2,700	2,450	2,600	2,850
Hamburg, ... "	8,750	6,750	4,000	9,000	7,125
Trieste, ... "	3,700	1,800	1,850	3,300	2,662
Havre, ... "	2,800	4,550	5,450	7,250	5,012
Great Britain, "	11,900	7,900	7,750	7,400	8,738
Total Sept. 1st, .. tons,	79,750	65,250	53,000	51,700	62,424

The stock of sugar in New-York on the first of October, 1861, was about one-half what it was at the same date in 1860. The new tariff of August, 1861, has reduced the importations to a low figure. We find that the importations of sugar for nine months of the year 1861, compared with three previous years, are as follow:

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
New-York, ... tons,	177,996 ..	189,629 ..	224,345 ..	180,882
Boston, ... "	29,561 ..	28,968 ..	42,385 ..	26,802
Philadelphia, ... "	22,464 ..	29,253 ..	29,286 ..	18,895
Baltimore, ... "	21,127 ..	19,925 ..	28,309 ..	10,746
9 mos., ... tons,	251,148 ..	267,775 ..	324,325 ..	237,325
3 mos., ... "	29,916 ..	27,654 ..	40,138 ..	....
12 mos., ... "	281,064 ..	295,429 ..	364,463 ..	....

In the leading ports of Europe the stock, on 1st September, was four times that of the United States, (from E. H. Moring's N. Y. Circular,) viz.:

Stocks of Sugar in the six principal Depots of Europe, up to 1st September.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.	Average.
In Holland, ... tons,	16,000 ..	13,500 ..	12,000 ..	23,500 ..	16,250
Antwerp, ... "	1,600 ..	2,700 ..	600 ..	2,700 ..	1,900
Hamburg, ... "	2,400 ..	4,000 ..	6,000 ..	7,750 ..	5,037
Trieste, ... "	5,550 ..	5,500 ..	2,550 ..	1,600 ..	3,800
Havre, ... "	850 ..	8,950 ..	5,450 ..	8,650 ..	5,975
Great Britain, ... "	110,150 ..	113,350 ..	120,700 ..	141,150 ..	121,337
Total, Sept. 1st, ... tons,	136,550 ..	148,000 ..	147,300 ..	185,350 ..	154,299
United States, ... "	40,517 ..	55,912 ..	89,458 ..	42,377 ..	....

The stock on hand in New-York, on 1st October, was only 32,820 tons, or about equal to the average of forty-five days' imports, and about one-half what it was in October, in 1860, viz.:

Stock of Sugar on hand at four Principal Ports, October 1st.

	Total Tons.			
Stock in	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
New-York,	29,508	42,395	61,427	32,820
Boston,	5,344	6,563	14,423	7,126
Philadelphia,	2,380	3,784	4,466	80
Baltimore,	3,285	3,170	9,142	2,351
Total, 1st October,	40,517	55,912	89,458	42,377
" 1st September,	46,749	78,289	109,106	63,557
Decrease,	6,232	22,377	19,648	21,180

One of the most interesting items of the month is the completion of the telegraphic line of communication from New-York City to Salt Lake City, *via* St. Louis. The first message was published at New-York on Saturday, October 19th, dated Salt Lake City, October 18th. The line from the latter city to San Francisco, was completed on the 24th of October; thus giving us a direct communication between the Atlantic and the Pacific.

Measures have been taken by the Russian government to extend the telegraphic line from Moscow, eastwardly, to the mouth of the Amoor. Of this line, some fifteen hundred miles have been completed. From the Amoor, the line will be further extended through Asiatic Russia to Behring's Straits; thence across to Russian America, where a connection will be formed with the British territory, and to the extreme northern point of the United States on the Pacific, and thence to San Francisco; thus giving, at an early day, a complete telegraphic communication from New-York, westwardly, to Asia, and to Russia in Europe and to other portions of the European continent.

We reported in our September number, (page 331,) that the banks of New-York, Philadelphia and Boston had agreed in convention to take the new loan of the general government to the extent of fifty millions of dollars, with the option of taking fifty millions further on the 15th of October, and fifty millions on the 15th of December. The first subscription of fifty millions was allotted as follows, showing the capital and specie of the banks of the three cities, August 17:

	No. of Banks.	*Aggregate Capital.*	*Loan allotted.*	*Specie.*
New-York,	54	$69,900,000	$35,000,000	$49,733,000
Boston,	46	38,000,000	10,000,000	7,000,000
Philadelphia,	19	11,811,000	5,000,000	6,400,000

The effect of this upon the New-York banks was to increase the loans from 108 millions, as reported on the 17th August, to a weekly average of 137 millions on the 24th, the specie funds becoming reduced thereafter according to the instalments drawn for by the treasury. The changes in the aggregate movements of the banks are indicated in the following table of loans, specie, circulation, deposits and exchanges, at the beginning of each month, since January last:

1861.	*Loans.*	*Specie.*	*Circulation.*	*Deposits.*	*Weekly Clearings.*	*Sub-Treasury.*
Jan. 5,	$ 129,625,465	$ 24,839,475	$8,698,283	$86,454,430	$ 95,994,868	$ 3,645,500
Feb. 2,	121,907,024	31,054,509	8,099,376	87,879,743	122,138,525	4,328,000
Mch. 2,	121,893,963	34,480,407	8,290,755	89,635,298	126,728,832	9,166,030
Apl. 6,	122,113,496	41,705,558	8,930,141	94,859,810	123,277,671	8,486,494
May 4,	124,610,166	38,054,254	9,296,399	94,977,381	106,413,316	9,761,752
June 1,	118,290,181	37,502,402	8,683,780	90,197,459	88,847,249	11,468,789
July 6,	112,134,668	45,630,025	8,862,799	90,579,753	88,313,230	4,616,620
Aug. 3,	111,719,111	46,226,181	8,585,574	92,229,384	81,415,525	6,738,059
Aug. 17,	108,717,434	49,733,990	8,521,426	92,046,308	80,172,670	4,380,239
Sept. 7,	139,158,230	41,887,230	8,890,581	114,091,061	89,058,896	13,094,909
Sept. 14,	136,565,624	37,529,412	8,792,620	106,760,876	95,611,078	14,293,222
Sept. 28,	126,128,326	38,123,552	8,638,780	96,551,898	85,685,514	13,103,484
Oct. 5,	148,545,488	39,809,901	8,884,056	120,607,549	110,687,377	10,629,098
Oct. 12,	156,318,914	41,139,606	8,733,090	129,188,487	113,981,352	10,802,803
Oct. 19,	151,828,438	42,282,884	8,583,673	126,433,063	122,803,544	9,508,649

The receipts and shipments of wheat at Milwaukie last week were the largest ever known for a single week at that city, amounting to more than six hundred thousand bushels received, and over a million bushels forwarded. The receipts were, for the year:

	Flour. bbls.	*Wheat. bush.*	*Oats. bush.*	*Corn. bush.*	*Barley. bush.*	*Rye. bush.*
Total since Jan. 1,	376,181 ..	10,615,559 ..	70,118 ..	81,858 ..	35,429 ..	62,285
Same time in 1860,	107,860 ..	6,093,329 ..	148,864 ..	107,355 ..	64,253 ..	34,234
Same time in 1859,	142,871 ..	3,314,290 ..	201,236 ..	137,450 ..	101,178 ..	9,554

Shipments of flour and wheat from January 1st to October 19th, in the years 1860 and 1861, compare as follow:

1860,	flour, bbls. 287,550	wheat, bush.	4,794,815
1861,	530,380	....	10,694,586
Increase,	242,630	....	5,898,771

The annual meeting of the Clearing-House Association of the banks of this city was held October 15th, when THOMAS TILESTON was re-elected Chairman, and WILLIAM B. MEEKER, Secretary. The following committee was elected and appointed:

Clearing-House Committee.—J. D. VERMILYE, GEORGE S. COE, J. M. MORRISON, E. D. BROWN and J. M. PRICE.

Committee on Conference.—JAMES GALLATIN, JACOB CAMPBELL, Jr., GEORGE W. DUER, A. S. FRASER and R. H. HAYDOCK.

Committee on Admissions.—D. R. MARTIN, C. F. HUNTER, H. BLYDENBURG, J. Q. JONES and M. M. FREEMAN.

Committee on Arbitration.—H. H. JACQUES, JOHN THOMPSON, J. W. DUER, W. L. JENKINS and F. A. PLATT.

Mr. G. D. LYMAN was re-appointed manager.

CLEARING-HOUSE TRANSACTIONS FROM OCTOBER 11, 1853, TO OCTOBER 1, 1861.

	Aggregate balances.		*Aggregate exchanges.*
1853–4,	$ 297,411,493 69	....	$ 5,750,455,987 06
1854–5,	289,694,137 14	....	5,362,912,098 33
1855–6,	334,714,489 33	....	6,906,213,328 47
1856–7,	365,313,901 69	....	8,333,226,718 06
1857–8,	314,238,910 60	....	4,756,664,386 09
1858–9,	363,984,682 56	....	6,448,005,956 01
1859–60,	308,693,438 37	....	7,231,143,056 69
1860–61,	353,383,944 41	....	5,915,742,758 05
	$ 2,627,434,997 79		$ 50,704,365,288 81
Total transactions for eight years,			53,331,799,286 60

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE

OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

LONDON, *October 5th*, 1861.

WHILE the Bank of France and its branches have felt the necessity of curtailing their loans on commercial paper, owing to the drain of gold from the country, the Bank of England pursues an opposite policy, by reducing the minimum rate of discount.

From the 16th of May to the 1st of August the Bank of England rate stood at 6 per cent.; at the latter date it was reduced to 5 per cent.; on the 15th of August, to 4½, and on the 29th to 4 per cent. On the 19th September a further reduction to 3½ per cent. was made.

On the 26th of September the Bank of France advanced their rate of discount from 5 per cent., at which it had stood since the 22d of March, to 5½ per cent. This movement was partly anticipated, a belief having been entertained in Paris during the previous week that an increased demand for money would soon be felt from the continued grain purchases.

On Tuesday, October 1st, the Bank of France raised the rate of discount to 6 per cent., the former rise, on the 26th ult., not having been found effectual in arresting the efflux of bullion. Advices from Paris state that the condition of the *Bourse* on the 2d was such as has not been paralleled for many years. The uncertainty and agitation were extreme, and at one time it was almost impossible to transact business. This was, in part, produced by the Bank of France having borrowed, till the next settlement at the end of the month, an amount equal to about a million sterling, upon French *rentes*, at the rate of 5½ per cent. per annum. The scarcity of money thus produced caused the general terms for carrying on transactions from account to account to advance, until between 8 and 10 per cent. were the *minimum* rates.

The following is an abstract of the gross revenue of the United Kingdom in the year and quarter ending September 30, 1861, compared with the corresponding periods of the preceding year:

	Quarter ending Sept. 30.		Year ending Sept. 30.	
	1860.	1861.	1860.	1861.
Customs,	£5,888,000	£5,982,000	£23,396,395	£23,488,000
Excise,	5,089,000	4,221,000	20,070,000	18,624,000
Stamps,	2,053,000	2,013,000	8,267,258	8,426,170
Taxes,	166,000	160,000	3,257,000	3,130,000
Property tax,	2,281,000	991,000	10,309,816	11,133,000
Post-office,	800,000	870,000	3,370,000	3,470,000
Crown lands,	65,568	66,479	289,568	292,479
Miscellaneous,	315,598	297,753	1,849,940	1,242,511
Total income,	£16,658,166	£14,601,232	£70,809,977	£69,806,160

Subjoined are the imports of wheat and flour into Great Britain, in quarters, for the three previous harvest years, ending 1st August, with

quarterly and annual imports; flour reduced into wheat at the rate of three and a half cwts. per quarter:

	1858-59.	1859-60.	1860-61.
	qrs.	qrs.	qrs.
First quarter,	1,142,000	916,000	2,670,000
Second quarter,	1,019,000	954,000	2,994,000
Third quarter,	1,032,000	497,000	2,462,000
Fourth quarter,	1,974,000	1,653,000	2,430,000
Yearly totals, ...quarters,	5,167,000	4,020,000	10,556,000

The first month of the present season shows a falling off, not only in regard to the months immediately preceding it, but also with respect to the corresponding month of last year, and is below the monthly average of last season by 175,000 quarters. In regard to actual available supply, it is even more deficient, as compared with August, 1860, than shown from the shipments to France from England.

Subjoined are the values of the exports of British produce and manufactures for the month and *eight* months ending 31st August, for the present and two previous years, and of the values of the principal articles imported in the month and *seven* months ending 31st July, the importations being one month behind the exportations, as requiring much greater labor to compute:

Exports.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Month of August,	£12,117,275	£13,535,205	£12,337,441
Eight months ending 31st August,	86,405,885	88,077,892	82,575,126
Imports.			
Month of July,	15,551,616	15,200,442	17,748,952
Seven months ending 31st July,	76,367,153	90,569,648	100,015,301

The decrease in the value of the exports is more than accounted for by the diminution of our shipments to the United States; at the same time it is worthy of remark, that the exports to India, in regard to cotton goods, with which those markets were supposed to be saturated, exhibit no falling off, but, on the contrary, an increase; the value for the month of August being £1,122,170, against £842,167 in August, 1860, and £1,116,769 in August, 1859. In cotton yarn it is otherwise, being respectively £119,728, £142,767 and £228,927.

Subjoined is the value of our exports to the United States for the month of August in the present and two previous years:

	1859.	1860.	1861.
Cotton manufactures,	£217,577	£447,775	£38,564
Linen "	122,432	228,119	42,279
Woollen "	307,789	489,363	111,693
Silk "	31,783	31,886	13,665
Metals,	419,870	434,431	101,817
Earthenware,	63,593	79,318	16,514
Haberdashery and millinery,	112,089	138,720	33,659
Hardware and cutlery,	99,678	141,463	71,679
Soda,	46,411	54,230	20,798
Spirits,	9,935	13,486	665
Coals,	22,476	25,414	26,053
Salt,	8,218	9,904	5,809
Totals,	£1,416,851	£2,094,309	£483,174

The falling off in our total exports is only £1,197,764, while to the United States alone, as compared with August, 1860, it is £1,611,135.

It appears that the shipments of cotton from Liverpool to the United States amounted, during the past month, to 3,703 bales, of which the whole were American, except 321 bales of East Indian. The principal portion was conveyed in steamers.

By the ship ASIA, of New-York, a cargo of crust guano has lately been imported from the island of Sombrero, and landed in the West India docks. Sombrero is situate near the Dutch island of St. Martin, in the West Indies, and is the property of Messrs. WOOD & SONS, of New-York, who are said to hold it under the protection of the United States government. The discovery of the guano deposits on the island is of recent date. Hitherto the shipments have been chiefly to the southern ports of the States; but, as those are now blockaded, the supply may probably be directed towards England.

A prospectus has been issued of the General Tram Rail-Road Company, with a capital of £200,000, in £5 shares. The first object is to carry out a concession which has been granted by the Emperor of the French, for a horse rail-road in France, between Clermont and Riom, a distance of twelve miles.

It is curious to witness the changes that have taken place in the values of some of the principal articles largely imported from the United States. We subjoin the comparative prices in this market at the present time, compared with those ruling in September, 1860, from which it will be seen that the articles more immediately affected by the blockade have materially advanced in value:

DESCRIPTION OF PRODUCE.	PRICES. 1860.	1861.
Tobacco, Virginia, Kentucky and Maryland, ranging, per lb.,	3d. to 10d.	6d. to 14d.
Average about, per lb.,	7d.	10½d.
Rice, Carolina, per cwt.,	18s. to 26s.	26s. to 31s.
Bark, Philadelphia, per cwt.,	8s. 6d. to 9s.	11s. to 12s.
" Baltimore, "	7s. 6d. to 8s.	9s. 3d.
Linseed cake, American, thin, per ton,	£9 15s. to £10.	£10 12s. 6d. to £10 15s.
Rosin, common, per cwt.,	5s. 2d.	12s. 3d. to 12s. 6d.
" medium to fine, per cwt.,	6s. to 16s.	13s. to 20s.
Turpentine, American, rough, per cwt.,	7s. 6d. to 8s.	nominal.
" spirits, "	32s.	60s.
Tar, American, per bbl.,	17s. 6d. to 18s.	nominal.

The first cargo of new teas has arrived from China, in the FIERY CROSS, Captain DALLAS, from Foo-chow; she passed through the Downs for London 23d September. There is always considerable competition in getting the first cargo to market, and, in addition to the ordinary freight, a further sum is usually engaged to be paid to the successful ship, which prize the FIERY CROSS carries off this season, in the shape of an extra 10s. per ton.

Of French commercial affairs it may be said, that while no crisis is imminent, yet the wants of the country will probably be very large. Speaking of the commercial treaty between England and France, which took effect on 1st October, the Paris correspondent of the *Times* says: "In spite of the increase in the importation of raw material, which shows increased production and the falling off of exportation, there is no trace of manufacturing distress. What can one do but conclude that France

has found consumers at home for her manufactures! The first beneficial effect of the new commercial policy was, therefore, to make many articles accessible to people who were before deprived of them. As for the financial drain, it has absolutely nothing to do with the national industry and manufactures."

The *Moniteur* contains an imperial decree, dated the 1st of October, according to which the ports of Marseilles, Bordeaux, Nantes, Rouen, Havre, Dieppe, Boulogne, Calais and Dunkirk, and the custom-houses of Tourcoing, Roubaix, Lille, Valenciennes, Mulhouse and Lyons, are, dating from the 1st inst., open for the importation of cotton and woollen yarns of every description, either of English or Belgian manufacture. By the same decree, the following articles of English or Belgian origin or manufacture cannot be imported into France, either by land or sea, except through the custom-houses appointed: All goods paying a duty of twenty francs per one hundred kilogrammes; also, coaches, playing-cards, chicory, roasted or ground, cutlery, skin and leather work, articles made of horse or cow's hair, pure or mixed chemicals, ordinary soaps, drinking glasses and crystals, white and colored, window glass, colored glass, polished or engraved, watch and optical glasses, and all other glassware not mentioned in this category, sea-going vessels, hulls of sea-going vessels, river craft, alpaca, lama and Vienna wool, and camel's-hair yarn.

The French Foreign Office is engaged with several new commercial treaties, suggested by that which comes into operation this month between England and France. The Zollverein negotiants progress towards conclusions, contrary to the assertions of a Belgian journal.

A letter from Cognac, dated the 18th of September, says: The vintage throughout this district will be quite as bad, and even worse, than was sometimes since apprehended. In many vineyards there are no grapes at all. A few vines show a little fruit, but, on the whole, the result will be very bad indeed. The quantity of wine that will be made this year in the Cognac district will not be sufficient for the requirements of the people inhabiting the neighborhood. No Cognac brandy can, therefore, be expected to be distilled this year, and the wants of the trade must be entirely supplied from the old stocks of 1860, 1859 and 1858. The vintage has commenced in the neighborhood of Lyons. The quality of the wine is excellent, and the grape ferments readily. The celebrated white wine of Condrieu, of this year, is already offered for sale in the wineshops of Lyons. It is calculated that the rain which fell last week will increase the wine crop by full 25 per cent.

The leading items of the past week are as follow:

September 26.—The prospectus of the Metropolitan and Provincial Bank (limited) published. Capital, £1,000,000. (England.)

Bank of France advanced rate of discount from 5 to 5½ per cent.

September 27.—The Commercial Union Fire Assurance Company announce the commencement of business in London.

September 28.—Bills of Messrs. RAPHAEL, GARDINER & Co. protested.

October 1.—The prospectus of the Queensland Cotton Company (limited) published. Capital, £100,000.

Advance of the rate of discount by the Bank of France to 6 per cent.

October 2.—The prospectus of the General Tram Rail-Road Company (limited) published. Capital, £20,000.

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

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EDITED BY

J. SMITH HOMANS, (SECRETARY OF THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF THE STATE OF NEW-YORK,)

AND WILLIAM B. DANA, ATTORNEY AT LAW.

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THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

DECEMBER, 1861.

COTTON AND ITS CULTURE.

IMPORTANCE OF A MACHINE AND A PROCESS TO COTTONIZE FLAX INTO FIBRILLA, IN AID OF THE DEMAND FOR COTTON, BY A YEARLY INCREASE OF 6,000,000 OF SPINDLES, REQUIRING 800,000 BALES OF COTTON, AND, IN TEN YEARS, A SUPPLY OF 18,500,000 BALES TO CLOTHE THE WORLD.—THE CHANGE OF COMMERCE EFFECTED IN THE LINEN TRADE, ON THE DISCOVERY OF WHITNEY'S GIN, 1795, AND THE PECULIAR STAPLE OF AMERICAN COTTON TO MAKE MACHINE GOODS.—PHYSICAL CAUSES OF THE SEA AND TRADE-WINDS GIVING EXTRA HEAT AND MOISTURE OUTSIDE OF THE TROPIC OF CANCER.—THE TRUE CAUSE OF OUR UNIQUE CLASS OF COTTON.—A TABLE FROM BLODGET'S CLIMATOLOGY OF HEAT AND MOISTURE IN THE COTTON STATES.

We commend the editors of the MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE and the Chamber of Commerce of New-York for discussing, and for your endeavors to cottonize, flax, by discovering a machine and a *cheap process* for this important object. It is a great necessity for genius to accomplish, and worth a premium from the government of $100,000, and even a larger sum.

WHITNEY, by his invention of the cotton gin, 1795, enabled one laborer to do the work of 350 in a day. Judge JOHNSON, in his charge in a suit brought in Savannah, 1807, to make good his patent, says: "The whole of the interior was languishing, and its inhabitants were emigrating for want of some object to engage their attention and employ their industry, when the invention of this machine at once opened views to them which set the whole country in active motion. From childhood to age it has presented us a lucrative employment. Individuals who were depressed with poverty and sunk in idleness, have suddenly risen to wealth and respectability. Our debts have been paid off, our capitals have increased and our lands trebled in value. We cannot express the weight of obliga-

tion which the country owes to this invention. The extent of it cannot *now* be seen."

This invention, with the adaptation of the climate of the Southern States, with heat and moisture outside of the Tropic of Cancer to raise our peculiar Upland cotton, warp and weft being combined in the same sample grown from perennial, acclimatized seed, procured by us from Egypt, Mexico and Nanking, China, and made an *annual* plant by quick growth, in what may be called a *natural hot-bed*, extending from Cape Hatteras to East Texas, has done wonders for commerce, to clothe and Christianize the world, and to pay balances of productive industry.

We have still a great field, to introduce cheap covering to the savages of Africa, Asia and the Polynesian Islands, by cottonizing flax and increasing the growth of cotton over the world. Let us all work together for this object, and "*be thankful for the good the gods give us*," to use the language of the Latins. Let us continue to produce our unique cottons, not grown in such perfection in any parts of the tropics from the want of rains *during the summer months*—a class of cotton so indispensable to Europe, with its peculiar staple, easily manufactured into *machine goods*, and thus continue to lay Europe under contribution to us, in an exchange of productive industry for theirs, with the balance in our favor.

It is within the memory of the writer, who entered an East India counting-house in Philadelphia, 1804, that at that period our intercourse was brisk with Ireland. Cargoes on cargoes of flax-seed were shipped to that country to supply the deficit in seed, caused by their pulling up flax in its unripe state, to manufacture into fine linens of the higher numbers, and also in the lower numbers from the mature flax, both classes being used in those days by the rich and the poor. There were few so poor to use, for shirting, the cotton cloths, the guwahs, the baftas, the mamordies, &c., we then imported from India through the port of Calcutta, where we yearly sent a ship and the hard Spanish dollars to buy them; with three or four other ships from Philadelphia for mixed cargoes, principally of sugar, indigo, rice, saltpetre, and a small assortment of muslins. At this period, not to exceed two ships sailed from New-York, and three or four to Canton, and not one from Baltimore. Salem took the lead of Boston and New-York, in the East India trade. The cotton cloths of India were spun and woven by hand, and of a much inferior quality to our machine-made cotton cloths and prints of the present day, yet we sold them for double and treble prices. We also received at that time fine jaconets, mull-mulls, dacca, shear and fine book-muslins, produced by the hand labor of the natives, with their patient industry expended on fine short, woolly staple cotton, but costing very high prices. Yellow nankeens from the Nanking cotton of China, a strong article, were imported in large quantities.

During the war of the Revolution the daughters of our farmers and wealthy citizens learned to spin, and many to weave. It was a matter of pride and necessity to be independent on their marriage, and to take their husbands their linens, sheeting, towelling, napkins, &c., as their trousseau. We well recollect in those days custom made it necessary that our females, except of the poorer class, (and they were employed to spin with foot-power on the small wheel,) had to spin and weave their marriage outfit, their dower or trousseau.

After commerce re-opened with Ireland, we had very extensive stores of

linen in all our sea-board cities, established mainly by persons with large capitals, who sold linen alone, and at such low prices, comparatively, that they soon broke down our domestic manufactures of flax. We can also recollect when the linen trade, in part participated in by Germany, was a great branch of our commerce; when German redemptionists, male and female, came to Philadelphia in considerable numbers, and indentured themselves for a term of years to pay their passage money, on the decline of the linen trade. They made a very useful and industrious class of inhabitants in Pennsylvania and New-Jersey, and we are now profiting by them and the Celt.

History is silent as to the name of the person who first introduced the exotic cotton plant into America. We find, in 1736, it was introduced into Talbot county, on the Eastern shore of Maryland, "as a pretty plant, bearing a beautiful flower;" and although it may have been raised in squares and patches in neighboring provinces, no particular attention was bestowed upon it as a profitable crop. At the close of the Revolution great financial distress prevailed. At a meeting of the celebrated convention of 1786, the subject of cotton came up. The late President MADISON, who had given much attention to the subject of the cotton culture, expressed it as his decided opinion, that, from the results of the garden culture in Talbot county, and numerous other similar proofs furnished South, there was no reason to doubt "*that the United States would one day become a great cotton country.*"

In the year 1764, W. RATHBONE, an American merchant in Liverpool, received a consignment of eight bales of cotton from Charleston. This cotton, on its arrival in Liverpool, was seized by the custom-house officers as not the growth of the country from which it purported to be shipped; being, as they said, outside of the Tropic of Cancer, it could not be grown there. The small supplies of cotton previously received and manufactured in England by hand, as in India, were imported from Calcutta and the West Indies. It was of a short, woolly staple, spun in private families; and manufactured, at that time, into velvets, velvetines, corduroys, fustians and satinets. It would not make strong yarns.

The importation of our strong, long, silky staple cotton before the close of the last century, when it had reached 35,000 bales, cleaned by WHITNEY'S gin, superseded, in a great measure, the India cottons, particularly when BOLTON & WATT perfected their steam engines to turn machinery, and HARGREAVES, ARKWRIGHT & CROMPTON invented the spinning jenny and the spinning mule. The effect of these inventions was, that whereas, previously, one man could clean one pound of cotton in a day, another card it, and another work one spindle, one man might (in 1800) clean 350 pounds, another card it, and the third work 2,200 spindles instead of one, thus making "*machine cotton goods.*" These goods, in a very short period, superseded the Irish and German linens, except a small supply for shirt bosoms, that the proud need not appear to wear cotton shirtings, a mark of poverty in olden times, and since continued.

The success of Manchester in manufacturing cotton yarns and cloths of fine and uniform quality, at very low prices, (a pound of cotton, costing ten to twelve cents, making eight yards of cloth, worth eight times its cost,) compared with linens, broke down this trade. It caused the yearly emigration of thousands of operatives from Ireland, who became useful to us in building our houses, digging our canals and constructing our

railways, and finally aiding us to settle our abundant wild lands. It has been estimated that during the last fifty years there have emigrated from Ireland to the United States two millions of souls, who have settled mainly in our northern and western States—a great source of national wealth, by their productive industry.

If Sea Island is spun into the finest yarn or thread, it is worth five guineas or $25 for a pound; if woven into muslin and tamboured, $75; constructed into a piece of lace, worth $500. (Report of Secretary of the Treasury, 1836.) Sea Island cotton is generally worth three times as much as the common quality.

Great Britain, it would appear, can afford to import four-fifths of our cotton crop to make "*machine goods*," and then to send these goods round the Cape of Good Hope, with a voyage of upwards of 10,000 miles, to Calcutta and back, and yet compete, successfully, with the native manufacturers of Hindostan, although they can hire their labor at three cents per day to plant and pick their cotton bolls, and they can spin and manufacture it, by hand, at the same rate as they do in their *hand* looms. They sell their raw cotton at from five to six cents per pound; yet it will not pay, at this price, to export to Liverpool, unless there is a deficit in our crop, and the price with us advances so as to exceed eight cents per pound, and in Liverpool is at a medium price of ten to twelve cents per pound.

Mr. J. B. Smith, the member for Stockport, England, read a paper before the Society of Arts, Manchester, treating of the three great divisions of cotton, "the long staple, the medium and the short staple," * * * which he describes. He then says: "It will be seen, therefore, that while we require, for the purposes of our manufacture, a limited supply of the first and third qualities of raw cotton, we need, and can consume, an almost unlimited supply of the second quality—American Uplands. In this fact lies our real difficulty, for, while several quarters of the world supply the first sort, and India could supply enormous quantities of the third sort, the United States of America alone have hitherto produced the second and most necessary kind." (Uplands of Georgia, Alabama, &c.)

"The finest cotton in the world is called the 'Sea Island.' The quantity is small and the price very high, mainly from the Sea Islands of Georgia and south of Cape Hatteras.

"Our great consumption and demand is for the soft, white, silky, moderately long cotton of America; the quality usually called '*Uplands, Georgia* and *New-Orleans*.' It can be consumed in any quantity; for it is available not only for weft but for warp, except for the higher numbers. We need and consume nine bales of this cotton for one bag of all other qualities put together." * * *

He closes: "The point we have to bear in mind, then, is this: our *desideratum* is not simply more cotton, but more cotton of the same character and *price* as that now imported from the States. If India were to send us two millions of bales of Surat cotton per annum, the *desideratum* would not be supplied, and our perilous problem would still be unsolved. We should be as dependent on America as ever." This is a candid confession.

We have given this exordium and these extracts, in connection with the unique quality of our cotton, and the acknowledged necessity of it

by Great Britain, to repeat the *cause* of our exotic *perennial* plant becoming an *annual*, to wit, by quick growth in a humid, hot climate, with the same average heat of 80 to 82 degrees in the summer months, the same as in the dry Bahama Islands, of latitude 25°. (See BLODGET'S Climatology and table herewith.)

This extra tropical heat, in part caused by the Gulf Stream, also with the fall of twenty inches of rain during the three summer months, *when little or none falls in other tropical cotton regions*, maturing the bolls in four to five months, is the *cause* of our white, soft, silky, moderately long, strong cottons, usually called "*Uplands*," of which, Mr. SMITH says "Great Britain can consume an almost unlimited quantity;" while "the dry, fuzz, woolly cotton of Surat," and from other tropical regions, for want of rains, will not serve for *warp* to make strong *machine-spun cotton goods*, and is only used by manufacturers in limited quantities for *weft* for an inferior class of "*machine goods*," and then only in cases of the utmost necessity, like the present. She last year imported 600,000 bales of Surat cotton from Calcutta, and exported 410,000 bales of it to the cotton manufacturers of the north of Europe, leaving the inconsiderable quantity of 190,000 bales to be used in Great Britain. The weight of the raw cotton exported from India was less than that of the manufactured goods exported. The United States is the only country to which Great Britain exports in weight less cotton goods than she imports raw cotton.

The May number (Vol. 44, No. 5) of the MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW presents important facts, showing the extraordinary increase of the manufacture of cotton goods in Great Britain and on the continent, as well as the United States, and the sources of supply of raw cotton from all parts of the world, and, let us add, the importance of a machine to cottonize flax.

It is there stated, and it cannot be repeated too often, "that in sixty years the manufacture of cotton goods had grown up to employ, in the United States and western Europe, 40,000,000 spindles in the production of yarns." * * * To supply raw material for those spindles there were last year produced in the United States 4,600,000 bales, and there was derived from India, in round numbers, 600,000; from other parts of the world, 300,000 bales, or equal to 5,500,000 bales. Of this quantity 87 per cent. was from the United States. Of that value, $300,000,000, the United States stood for 90 per cent.

It was recently stated before the Manchester Supply Association, that the number of spindles increased in Europe and America at the rate of 6,000,000 per annum, requiring, to supply these spindles, 810,000 bales per annum, a quantity equal to the whole United States cotton crop of 1828. There are then these prominent facts: First, that in the present century the demand for cotton has increased, from comparatively nothing, to, in round numbers, 5,500,000 bales per annum. Second, that it now increases at the rate of 800,000 bales per annum, which would, in ten years, give a demand for 13,500,000 bales. Third, up to this time nearly the whole increase in quantity has been supplied by the United States; also the only advance in *quality*. "These facts have been growing in importance before the eyes of manufacturers and statesmen during the last twenty-five years, and the most earnest attention has been directed to the means of insuring a future sufficient supply, but late events have given a new interest to the subject."

The editors then show, in detail, by the May number, "that vast sums had been furnished by the English and French governments, in the prosecution of these schemes. Disappointment has attended them all. The French government was disappointed in Algiers; the English, in India, after an expenditure of $1,750,000, where the climate is an insuperable bar to the growth of the proper variety," caused by the want of rain at the proper time.

The United States' capacity to produce is not now limited; but the limit must come, and the great question is, how will the future wants of the world be supplied when the capacity of the South to produce cotton is reached? What rival can be built up that will be able to supply the increasing excess of annual demand over production? The United States crop in

1800 was.....	35,000 bales.	1840 was.....	2,177,532 bales.
1820 "	425,000 "	1850 "	2,796,706 "
1830 "	870,415 "	1860 "	4,600,000 "

The crop of 1840 sold for 8½ cents per pound, and that of 1860, which was more than double in quantity, at 10⅞ cents. In the last ten years the crop has increased 67½ per cent., and will probably double in the next ten, but still falling short of the demand. It is plain *that a rival cotton-growing country cannot in any reasonable time lessen the importance of American cotton.* Efforts have, however, been made in another direction, viz., to find a substitute for cotton. Flax would have long since rivaled it, had it been adapted to *machine spinning.* That it has not, has, it is alleged, been owing to the faulty manner in which it has been cured. This difficulty is now said to be so far overcome that flax comes in direct rivalry with cotton, as a raw material.

The editors then devote eight pages to show, in an able article, there is a hope, with Mr. S. RANDALL'S late invention, to cottonize flax so as to be spun by machinery. We are glad to find there is a prospect that we can have an article in the aid of cotton, to supply one of the great wants of man, "food, fire and *clothing.*" It is a great *desideratum*, we say, in aid of cotton. Let it prosper.

The superiority of our cotton—unique—combining *warp* as well as *weft*, and its necessity to keep in motion the machinery of Great Britain, on the Continent and in the United States, has been repeatedly acknowledged. The *cause*, however, we do not see laid down in the books or by the press. We believe we were the first to discover and to construct the following table, in proof, after the perusal of MAURY and BLODGET'S works, showing the fall of water in our best cotton States, of 20 inches per annum, in our summer months, during which period little or none falls in other cotton-producing countries; and these States had the heat of the Bahama Islands—an extraordinary fact.

We repeat, we are the master of the position in raising cotton, particularly as compared with India. We have the advantage of the favoring Gulf Stream, and less than one-fourth the distance to make short voyages to and from Liverpool, and generally with return cargoes of salt, iron, crockery and passengers, to reduce the cost of freight.

The late Mr. N. BIDDLE, President of the Bank of the United States, the great regulator of our domestic and foreign exchanges—and events have proved him a sound thinker, as respects the exchanges, the balances of trade between Great Britain and France—was right when he said that cotton was destined to be the medium of effecting them.

He employed, it is well known, the capital of the Bank of the United States, and, by loans, encouraged the emigration of the sons of the "first families of Virginia" and Maryland from the worn-out lands of their fathers, with their share of the slaves, to buy and settle the new and fertile cotton lands of Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana and West Tennessee.

The cheap lands they purchased in these States, with the operatives they carried with them from their fathers' roofs, made first rate mortgages; which, through the agency of Mr. BIDDLE and the Bank of the United States, the bankers in Threadneedle-street, London, and the manufacturers of Manchester and Lancashire were glad to cash, on the promise of their cotton crop, dollar for dollar. It was thus the production of cotton "of the right kind" that has stimulated to its immense proportions our foreign trade.

With the labor from our several States, settled in California, we have had the estimated average yield for several years of $50,000,000, to form the basis of new banks, and to aid us in paying foreign balances of trade. It is, however, the productive labor in our cotton crop, demanded in this country and in Europe, and even in India and China, that now yields us at the rate of $250,000,000 per annum, to exchange for the labor of Europe, Asia and Africa. This exchange of labor it is that centres the balance of exchange in the port of New-York, and makes the banks of Europe subservient to ours.

The trade with Africa is now trifling. It may be largely increased in covering the present nakedness of millions of her savage and brutalized inhabitants, and thus, by the means of commerce with them, open the door to the Christian missionary of their own color, who can stand the climate, to evangelize millions on millions of benighted and half-cannibal creatures, who are now, by all accounts, but a few degrees removed above their gorillas. Here are ample fields for the philanthropist to cut up, at the root, the slave trade of the savage men of Africa, "selling property in man," and in their own children, too; while in this country, it is to be hoped, we will continue to improve the African race as we have done for the last one hundred years, so as to fit them finally for freedom. It cannot be a sudden work, except with fatal results. It must be gradual. This will finally take place, as it is understood the blacks increase three per cent. faster than the whites by their side; and they flourish with the plant they cultivate, by a wise order of Providence. The whites cannot stand the humidity and heat of the climate, while a check of migration from the North to the South will accelerate the period of the gradual and prospective emancipation of the colored population.

The Climatology of BLODGET establishes the fact, that slaves in West Texas, and from West Arkansas and Kansas, on the belt of land reaching to the Pacific, are worth nothing to raise cotton with any profit, except on the east quarter of Texas, where there is a fall of forty-five inches per annum, with fifteen inches in summer. In the west part of Texas, and extending across the Rio Grande, we have the "*Llanos Estancados*," or staked desert plains, nearly without water—only three to six inches per annum. Then the desert of Mapimi. The fall of water per annum on this belt of land, tapering off, as you approach Fort Yumas on the Colorado, that falls into the Pacific, to three inches per annum—of course totally unfit to raise cotton. This is also the case to raise cotton from the Mexi-

can northern boundary, south to the Isthmus of Panama, of the right kind, although it is admitted that native cotton—a perennial plant—has been grown in this region and other parts of South America, time out of mind, and before the discovery by CORTEZ. So, also, in Egypt, and on the coast of the Mediterranean, from the time of HERODOTUS. In Africa it is a native tropical tree, a perennial plant of a short, staple, woolly character.

A Table of Heat, Moisture and Production of the Cotton States, prepared from the official sources of L. BLODGET, *by J. E. B.*

Heat and fall of rain during the four seasons.	*E. Blodget's Isothermal line of temperature.*	*Fall of Rain in East Texas.*	*Arkansas.*	*Tennessee.*	*Louisiana.*	*Mississippi.*	*Alabama.*	*Georgia.*	*S. Carolina.*	*Florida.*	*Years.*	*Amount of Crop in Bales.*	*Price, Cents.*
Spring, ..	70° to 60° ..	13	.. 13	.. 13	.. 15	.. 15	.. 15	.. 12	.. 12	.. 10	.. 1830 ..	870,415 ..	9.9
Summer, .	80° " 80° ..	15	.. 15	.. 15	.. 20	.. 20	.. 20	.. 20	.. 15	.. 25	.. 1840 ..	2,177,582 ..	8.5
Autumn, .	70° " 65° ..	12	.. 12	.. 12	.. 12	.. 12	.. 12	.. 10	.. 10	.. 12	.. 1850 ..	2,796,706 ..	11.3
Winter, ..	50° " 50° ..	10	.. 12	.. 15	.. 13	.. 13	.. 12	.. 10	.. 10	.. 8	.. 1860 ..	4,600,000 ..	11.5
Fall p. an,		50	.. 52	.. 55	.. 65	.. 65	.. 59	.. 52	.. 47	.. 55			

Experience has shown that there is no part of the world better adapted to raising flax than our Northern States, and we presume that there is no difficulty with our Western States. It is, therefore, of vast importance, that a machine and process be invented to cottonize flax, so as to be spun by machinery. A premium of $100,000, or more, would be a cheap rate to perfect and secure the invention. In the mean time, we say again, "let us be thankful for the good (warp and weft cotton) the gods give us," and protect this great branch of national industry.

J. E. B.

TOLEDO—PAST, PRESENT AND FUTURE.

IT was foreseen by sagacious men, at a period when nearly the whole interior region of our country was a wilderness, that, on the harbor at the western extremity of Lake Erie, a great commercial city would grow up with the growth of the extensive and fertile country around it, to which it would offer the nearest lake port. The estuary of the Maumee River affords the best harbor, all things considered, of Lake Erie. As this estuary was navigable fourteen miles above its entrance into the bay of the same name, the lake waters setting back that distance, the precise location of the future city was, for several years, keenly contested by Maumee City and Perrysburg, at the head of its navigable waters, and by Manhattan, at its entrance into the bay. During this contest, each place promulgated the most extravagant stories of the insalubrity of its rivals. These stories were extensively copied from the local press into the papers of the larger Lake Erie cities, several of which apprehended a successful rival in the new city. There was a basis of truth to give support to these exaggerations. Like all new settlements on a rich soil, especially on large rivers, the first settlers suffered much from malarial disorders; first, in the form of remittent fevers, afterwards subsiding into intermittents, and these, growing milder and less frequent from year to

year, until Toledo may now challenge a comparison, in point of salubrity, with the most favored city of the land. The mortality, as ascertained by the census of 1860, for the previous year, was one in sixty-four of its population, which is quite up to the rate of its average mortality of late years. It is deemed proper to be thus explicit in regard to the healthfulness of this new city, because of the extreme prejudice which still remains, in a great measure, uncorrected in the public mind on this point. This prejudice has materially retarded its growth and prosperity.

The location of Toledo is, fortunately, highly favorable in many repects for the growth of a large city. It embraces both sides of a fine harbor, averaging one-third of a mile in width and several miles in length. Indeed, the whole length of the bay and estuary, from the lake to the foot of the rapids, eighteen miles, may be set down as harbor room for Toledo, when its growth shall require it. The banks of this harbor rise directly from the water to an elevation of fifteen feet, in the bay, rising to sixty-two feet, at the foot of the rapids at Maumee City, with a gradual rise towards the interior about in the same proportion. The harbor affords good facilities for navigation. It is easy of entrance; has a depth of water ranging from twelve to thirty feet; is well protected from high winds; is little affected by the river floods, which rarely rise more than five or six feet above ordinary lake level; and never suffers injury to its shipping from the breaking up of ice on the river. This exemption it owes to the distance (nine miles) from the foot of the lower rapids of the Maumee, and to the great width of the river which admits lake tide to the rapids. It is only when heavy gales up or down the lake drive in or draw out the lake waters that its level is affected to the material injury of navigation. These gales usually occur in November, and seldom interrupt navigation more than two or three times in a season, or more than a day or two at a time. From the description it will appear evident that the harbor is convenient, safe, and otherwise of great merit. The entrance to it, through the bay, has a bar having but nine or ten feet of water over it, when the lake is low, and requiring an expenditure of some $50,000 to dredge a channel of sufficient width and depth to admit the passage of vessels drawing twelve feet. The outer harbor, under the south cape of the bay, can be entered, in the ordinary stage of water of the lake, with a draught of from twelve and one-half to fourteeen feet.

Such are the natural *positive* merits of the harbor and site of Toledo, as a commercial city. Its *relative* claims depend on its position in reference to the extent and fertility of the country which would be more conveniently accommodated in its commercial operations at this than at rival lake ports. The extent of this country may be approximately estimated, by drawing lines of equal distance between it and Cleveland, eastwardly, on one hand, and between it and Detroit, northwestwardly, on the other side.

These lines, extended to the Ohio River on the one side and to Lake Michigan on the other, embrace a very large area of country admirably adapted to support a dense population. The eastern limit embraces Columbus, and includes quite half of the State of Ohio. The northeastern line passes north of Jackson and Grand Rapids, embracing one-fifth of the lower peninsula of Michigan. Southwestward these lines, extended, em-

brace nearly all of Kentucky, two-thirds of Indiana and one-fourth of Illinois. This portion of these States is more properly within the range of the commercial influence of Toledo than that of Chicago. Toledo is the nearest lake port for Dayton, Cincinnati, Madison, Evansville, Louisville, New-Albany and other Ohio River towns between Portsmouth and Paducah; and it should be the lake point of connection and interchange of all their trade with the Canadas, the New-England States and Europe. Whether the late commerce of Cairo and the lower Mississippi shall be done chiefly through Toledo or Chicago is yet to be determined, when the railway facilities between that great region and the lake cities shall have been connected and arranged so as to give full play to the natural advantages of each of these ports.

The wide region above described is *naturally* within the commercial control of Toledo. We will now go into an examination of the extent of the artificial aids that come in, to secure to it what nature had previously furnished. In our day, proximity, in a commercial sense, has more relation to cost and time than to mere lineal distance. Canals and railways have brought remote districts into intimate relations, and are doing much to change the channels of interior commerce. They also are bringing land carriage, in many places, into competition with some of the great water-ways of commerce. Of all our navigable waters, the great lakes of the interior offer the most perfect facilities to commerce. Their inter-continental position, and the deep indentations into the lands, which, at remote points, they penetrate, give them a commercial power, in all directions, which waits only the dense peopling of their widely extended shores to make them fields of the most active commerce the world has ever witnessed. The purity of their waters gives to steam vessels (which are rapidly superseding sail vessels) greater safety and economy than they can enjoy on the turbid waters of the great rivers or the salt water of the ocean. The atmosphere over these lakes has an extraordinary purity and health-giving vigor, that is well worth the consideration of navigators and commercial men. These superiorities will avail much to make permanently cheap freights. No where can vessels, whether of wood or iron, find more or better raw materials for their construction than on these borders; and the fuel for making steam exists in inexhaustible coal beds at various points near their navigable waters. The generally received estimate of the cost to the shipper of freights on the lakes and on ordinary canals and rail-roads, per ton per mile, is proximately represented by the following figures:

By lakes,	3 mills.
" canals,	9 "
" rail-roads,	18 "

These figures, which pre-suppose a fair profit to the carrier, make it plain that canals and railways, in the West, to make a profit on freights during the season of navigation, should seek a lake harbor by the shortest and best route. When the lake mart is reached, cheap water transportation is offered, by way of New-York and Montreal, to and from all parts of the world.

The opening of the enlarged Erie Canal and the cheapening of the Canadian canals from the upper lakes to Montreal, will, this year, give a new impetus to the water transport between the ocean and the lakes. A short account of the canals and railways which have their lake terminus

in Toledo, will give many readers, hitherto uninformed respecting them, some idea of the advantages which these artificial channels have added to its commercial power, present and prospective.

Practically considered, these canals are two, connecting the Ohio River, at Cincinnati and Evansville, with Lake Erie at Toledo. They unite seventy miles above Toledo, whence the main trunk, six feet deep and sixty feet wide, becomes common to both, down to its entrance into the harbor, near the centre of the city. 1. The *Wabash and Erie Canal* was first constructed. It passes along the valleys of the Maumee and Wabash rivers, in a southwesterly course, from Toledo to Terre Haute, and thence south across the country to Evansville. It is four hundred and sixty (460) miles long, being the longest unbroken line of canal in the world. Its course is near the middle line of country, of which Toledo is the lake port; and so in the natural line of its main traffic. 2. The *Miami and Erie Canal* unites with the Wabash and Erie seventy miles above Toledo, and, by a line nearly south, traverses the rich Miami valley and joins the Ohio River at Cincinnati, making a nearly direct water channel between that city and Toledo, 247 miles in extent.

These canals would insure, for their lake terminus, a great destiny, independent of any location and arrangement of the railways that could be devised, to compete with them. Canals, in this country, are now out of fashion. The *furore* of our fast people for rail-road construction, and the policy of their shareholders and bondholders to make a large showing of freight receipts, at whatever sacrifice, have, for the time, by taking away from the canals their legitimate business, thrown them into the background. English canals, in aggregate earnings, yield better dividends than their rail-roads. Such will be the probable effect in this country of well-situated and well-managed canals, as soon as competing rail-roads charge freights high enough to give a fair profit on their cost. When such rates are charged, there need be no hostile rivalry between these equally valuable instruments of traffic. Each has its appropriate business, which is not antagonistic to that of the other. Indeed, they are naturally co-operative, and, working together, build up towns and villages which give an increasing profit to both. They are most profitable when working side by side, as they now do, on our best routes of interior commerce.

Indeed, along the borders of water-ways much more efficient than canals, to wit, the great lakes, Long Island Sound, Hudson and Connecticut Rivers, some of the most successful of our rail-roads are operated.

The water-ways of Toledo, by lake and canal, facilitate navigation in several directions, and to a large extent.

By lake,	west to Chicago,	800 miles.
"	northwest to Superior City,	850 "
"	northeast and east to Ogdensburg and Oswego,	500 "
		2,150 "
By canal,	southwest to Evansville,	460 miles.
"	south to Cincinnati,	247 "
		707 "

The rail-roads, of which there are six important lines centering in Toledo, radiate more completely, and, therefore, have commercial command of a

greater extent of country than the water-ways. The direct destinations of trains, leaving the city, are as follow:

To Cleveland,	112	miles.
" Detroit,	65	"
" Cincinnati,	202	"
" Chicago by Mich. So.,	243	"
" St. Louis,	459	"
" Elkhart by Air Line,	124	"
	1,205	"

The distance from Toledo to Chicago by the Northern Indiana, known as the "Air Line" Rail-Road, is 232 miles. This is the shortest practicable route across the peninsula of Michigan, and between the cities of Chicago and Toledo.

The population of Toledo, though still remarkably small compared with its commercial facilities and business, increased, from 1850 to 1860, in a larger proportion than any other lake city, except Chicago, as the following figures, derived from the United States census returns of the two periods, will show:

	Population.			*Increase Per Ct.*
	1859.		1860.	
Chicago,	29,963	....	109,430	265
Toledo,	3,829	....	13,784	260
Milwaukie,	20,061	....	45,325	124
Detroit,	21,019	....	46,834	122
Cleveland,	21,400	....	43,550	105
Buffalo,	42,261	....	81,541	93
Erie,	5,850	....	11,113	90

The same proportionate increase, continued to 1870, will give Toledo a population of 50,000. We think no one, well informed of the character of the country within the commercial control of the young city and the manifold facilities for concentration which its position invites, from lake, canal and rail-road, will anticipate a less favorable result.

Having described the *position* of Toledo, its natural and artificial advantages for commerce and the progressive increase of its population, let us now turn our attention to the main branches of its business during the calendar and fiscal year 1860. The figures that follow are drawn from reliable official data. The branch of business connected with and embracing transportation is the most considerable, and, probably, in all its parts and dependencies, yields the largest returns and supports the greatest number of people. We give here chiefly the eastward-bound movement, in aggregate quantities, as the general reader cannot be expected to take an interest in details.

Grain.—Embracing flour, computed at five bushels to the barrel, it appears that 14,504,903 bushels of grain were brought into Toledo during the year 1860. To place, in its true light, the relative position of this city, in the grain movement from west to east, we here present a table exhibiting this movement, which needs no comment. Flour, at all the ports, is counted in bushels, at five to the barrel:

	1859.		1860.		*Increase Per Ct.*
Tide-water at Albany,	21,636,700	....	46,867,600	....	..
Chicago,	20,000,000	....	36,500,000	....	82½
Toledo,	7,250,000	....	14,500,000	....	100
Milwaukie,	6,500,000	....	11,000,000	....	69½

This table uses round numbers, which are approximately correct.

In the grain trade, Toledo has, for three years, stood, among the lake receiving and distributing ports, next to Chicago. It develops rapidly,

from the double effect of the opening of new fields for its culture, and the completion of new channels for its transport.

RECEIPTS OF FLOUR, WHEAT, CORN, &c., AT TOLEDO, 1859, 1860.

	Flour—Barrels.		*Wheat—Bushels.*	
	1859.	1860.	1859.	1860.
Receipts at Toledo,.....	739,419	800,768	2,312,583	5,341,190
Shipments, chiefly by lake,	....	803,700	....	5,033,836
	Corn—Bushels.		*Rye—Bushels.*	
	1859.	1860.	1859.	1860.
Receipts at Toledo,.....	714,291	5,386,951	....	35,216
Shipments,.....	....	5,299,026	....	....

A yearly increasing business is done at Toledo in packing pork and beef, but it is still small compared with the favorable position for this operation. Slaughtering, for packing, was commenced in a small way last fall.

PROVISIONS.	1860.	HIDES.	1860.
Pork, barrels received,.....	141,283	Receipts,.....lbs.,	5,033,000
Beef, do.	66,819	Shipments,..... "	5,283,000
	208,102		
Shipped of both,.....	215,296		

Butter, Lard, Oil-cake, &c.—A large quantity, but not ascertainable. The shipments of flour, grain and provisions, and, indeed, of most other heavy articles, was chiefly by lake. The Cleveland and Toledo Rail-Road carried eastward 96,000 bbls. flour and 158,000 bushels of wheat.

LUMBER—*White Pine—feet.*	1859.	1860.
Receipts by lake,.....	22,316,963	37,868,536
Manufactured by mills in Toledo,.....	....	8,000,000
Total,.....	....	44,868,536

The stock left over was large, so that the above is not much more than was distributed, from this point, by canals and rail-roads. There were shipped of laths and shingles a due proportion to the lumber. Many of the latter were manufactured in Toledo, from bolts brought from the pineries.

Cabinet woods, chiefly of black walnut, were received by canal and rail-roads, and shipped down the lake, to the amount of 14,000,000 feet. Square timber, to the amount of 256,000 cubic feet, was sent eastward. This was of oak, of which the country, on and near the harbor, has an abundance of excellent quality for ship-building.

Salt.—The receipts this year were smaller than usual, a large stock having been held over. It all came by lake, 106,994 barrels, of which 5,000 barrels, Turk's Island, came in a schooner direct from Boston, by way of the St. Lawrence, the outward cargo having been lumber from this place. Of the rest, the works of Syracuse furnished all but a small quantity, which came from the new salt works on Saginaw Bay.

Manufactures.—Manufactures and the mechanic arts increase naturally, *pari passu*, with commerce and population in all cities of the northern temperate zone, and especially when elevated above the ocean level.

Toledo has an elevation of six hundred feet, giving it a bracing, health-imparting atmosphere. It is, in some measure, participating in the benefits which cities generally are, more and more, receiving, from the in-

creasing tendency of this great department of human industry to concentrate within and near their borders, This tendency is strengthened by every improvement in machinery and in the economy of its use; and so powerfully is it strengthened, that the physical as well as the moral power of mankind seems destined, ere long, to be nearly monopolized by cities and their suburbs.

Though of recent origin, with all departments of labor in a formative condition, Toledo makes progress, in this direction, not unworthy a record in this magazine, as the following statistics, taken from the United States census returns of 1850 and 1860, will testify:

	1850.		1860.
Number of establishments producing over $500 value,	38	....	100
Capital invested,	$98,200	....	$660,700
Value of materials used,	165,295	....	997,889
Number of hands employed, male,	231	....	885
" " female,	32	....	223
Annual wages paid,	$75,240	....	$318,588
Annual product,	304,525	....	1,966,240

Ship and canal-boat building were not reported in either census. Toledo is well located for a profitable prosecution of this branch of manufacture, having excellent timber easily accessible, and furnishing more freights than any other city of equal population in the country. The construction of buildings, for residence and business, is an important manufacture in all flourishing cities. We are unable to give the figures to exhibit that of Toledo, but it may be safely inferred that it has been in full proportion to the increase of population and general business.

Schools.—In the excellence of its educational establishments Toledo is unsurpassed by any city of its numbers in our country. Its high-school building and grounds have cost over fifty thousand dollars, and are ornamental to the city. Several of the ward-school buildings are also in good architectural style, and all are well adapted to their use. A liberal compensation and a good position in society are enjoyed by a very efficient corps of teachers in the various departments. Almost the whole expense of education in these schools is defrayed by the city, which collects a liberal annual tax for this object. This is cheerfully paid, the public schools being generally looked upon as the chief glory of the city. Much of the merit of their organization and improvement is due to one public-spirited citizen, to whom be everlasting honor.

Rail-Road Concentration.—The concentration of the six rail-roads that come in from various directions to one point, and, for passengers, into one union depot near the centre of the city, is admirable. A middle ground of shoal water, in the harbor, of great length, has been availed of and filled in by earth, necessarily removed to give the roads a favorable grade up to the level of the country in the rear. On this middle ground extensive depot buildings and warehouses have been erected, and miles of quay along the navigable water have been constructed, giving unequalled facilities for the exchange of freights and passengers, by the rail-roads with each other, and between cars, lake vessels and canal-boats. Not one of the six rail-roads passing through the city to their common depot crosses a street on grade, but is low enough below the surface to admit of convenient bridging. The entrance of the canal being at the same point, one can hardly imagine a more perfect ar-

rangement for centralizing a great commerce, with the least inconvenience and danger to the citizens, and the greatest facilities for the interchange and storage of commodities.

To one interested in the subject of the progress and destination of population on this continent, the history and prospects of Toledo will not be without interest. The centre of population and industrial power is moving, unmistakably, in the direction of the great lakes. It seems certain that, at a time not very distant, it will have reached and established itself there, and, in the most favorable positions, have gathered men into cities of greater magnitude than have yet been reared in any age or country.

The commanding geographically-commercial position of the harbor at the western extremity of Lake Erie attracted the attention of sagacious men when that whole region was yet the favorite home of the red man. Soon after WAYNE'S victory, in 1794, the Indians ceded to the United States a tract of twelve miles square around the foot of the rapids of the Maumee River. This embraced most of the harbor and Fort Miami, then held by the British. During the war of 1812, Fort Meigs was built at the foot of the rapids. The tract of land on which it was built was bought, after the close of the war, by YATES & MCINTYRE, of Albany, and its river front laid out for a city, named "Orleans of the North." To promote this speculation, the steamer WALK-IN-THE-WATER, the first steamer on the lake waters, was built by Dr. STEWART and others of Albany; and Mr. LOVETT, a distinguished member of Congress of the same place, was made resident agent. All the northwestern quarter of Ohio (except the twelve miles square) and the whole surrounding region southwest, west and north, was owned and inhabited only by the Indians. The WALK-IN-THE-WATER never reached "Orleans of the North." It drew too much water to go above the harbor on which Toledo is now situated. About the same time, other points on the estuary of the Maumee, below the foot of the rapids, and, among them, a portion of the site of Toledo, became the subjects of speculations, by associations of wealthy individuals—each location being claimed to be the true position for the great future city. Perrysburg, a mile below Fort Meigs, was laid out by the United States government, and lots in the plat sold, in 1817, at high prices. All these town speculations, except that on which a portion of Toledo now stands, proved disastrous to the owners, as have, also, several others entered into subsequently, in anticipation of the construction of the great canals. The commanding position of Toledo would warrant its designation of the "New-Orleans of the Lakes." It may become more important than the New-Orleans of the rivers. The course of trade of the country, to a great extent, southwest and west of the lakes, tends strongly to their nearest good harbors. Our secession war is giving that tendency a new impulse which promises to be permanent. Chicago and Toledo will profit most by this change in the course of trade, which can hardly fail, ere long, to give them a forward impulse stronger and more enduring than has been witnessed hitherto in the most flourishing cities of the continent. These cities are nearer and more accessible to the great industrial districts of the world, to Western Europe, the Canadas and the old free States of our Union, than New-Orleans or St. Louis, and should, therefore, have the preference, in the interchange of commodities between these regions, so rich in accumulated wealth and exchangeable products, and the great interior plain of North America.

ENGLISH INSURANCE STATISTICS FOR 1860.

We are indebted to the "*British Wreck Chart*" of 1860 for the following valuable particulars as to the losses of life and property during the year:

The year 1860 has been almost unprecedented for a continued succession of bad weather; and the number of wrecks and casualties from causes other than collision is, as might be expected, greater than the number recorded during either of the preceding eight years. It is, as will be seen on reference to tables, 146 above the annual average for six years, or 1,081, against 1,067 in 1859. Whilst, however, wrecks and strandings have increased, collisions have decreased, being 298, against 349 in 1859. The whole number of casualties of allkinds, including collisions, is 37 less than the number recorded in 1859, but it is 146 above the annual average for six years.

Although the number of wrecks and strandings has been greater than usual, the loss of life has been less; the number of lives lost in 1860 being under one-third of the number lost in 1859, and 264 under the annual average for nine years. The numbers for 1859 and 1860 are 1,645 and 536.

The great loss of life during 1859 was mainly attributable to the loss of two or three fine passenger ships, and the decrease in the number of lives lost in 1860 is owing to the absence of the loss of any large ships under similar circumstances. In 1859, 870 lives were lost in two casualties alone, viz., the wrecks of the "Pomona" and the "Royal Charter," whilst in 1860 the greatest number of lives lost in any one casualty was 37, and the next greatest number 31.

It will be seen that the number of casualties to ships of the collier class (*i. e.*, ships carrying coals, coke, ores and stone in bulk) is below the number for the last year, although, as is usual, it exceeds the number of casualties to all other descriptions of ships put together. For the purpose of comparison, the number of casualties to each description of ship during the last two years may be briefly stated as follow:

Ships.	1859.		1860.		*Total.*
Colliers, laden,.....	506	..	479		
" light,.....	71	..	60	..	1,504
Iron and copper ore,.....	130	..	93		
Stone, &c.,.....	82	..	83		
Timber,.....	61	..	76		
Other laden vessels,.....	376	..	338	..	1,291
Other vessels in ballast, not colliers,...	148	..	224		
Passengers,.....	42	..	26		
Total,.....	1,416	..	1,379	..	2,795

This shows that the total number of casualties in the two years is 2,795, and that of this number 1,504, or considerably more than half, happened to ships of the collier class. The result of table p. 581, taken in connection with the result of table, p. 580, shows that the classes of ships to which casualties most frequently happen on our coasts, are those between 50 and 300 tons burthen, employed in carrying coal, coke, ores and stone.

Other tables show the whole of the casualties attended with loss of life that have happened on the coasts of the United Kingdom during the last eleven years. The one contains a list of the cases in detail, geographically arranged, according to the place where the casualty happened, and the other is a summary, with the numbers classified according to districts. These tables are this year inserted for the first time.

It has been stated that the greatest number of lives lost from shipwreck are lost on the northeast coast. These tables, however, give the following results:

Districts.	*Total number of lives lost during eleven years.*	*Annual average.*
Farn Islands to Flamborough Head,	523	47 6-11
Flamborough Head to the North Foreland,	957	87
North Foreland to St. Catharine's Point,	465	42 3-11
St. Catharine's Point to Start Point,	81	7 4-11
Start Point to Land's End,	445	40 5-11
Land's End to Hartland Point, including Scilly,	330	30
Hartland Point to St. David's Head,	440	40
St. David's Head and Carnsore Point to Lambay Island and Skerries, Anglesa,	879	79 10-11
Skerries and Lambay to Fair Head and Mull of Cantire,	1,456	132 1-11
Cape Wrath to Buchan Ness,	197	17 10-11
Buchan Ness to Farn Islands,	271	24 7-11
All other parts of the coast,	842	76 5-11
Totals,	6,883	625 8-11

The experience of the past eleven years shows that the most serious wrecks, resulting in the greatest loss of life, do not happen, as was supposed, on the northeast coast, but in those seas and channels mostly frequented by large foreign-going ships.

A chart, illustrating these returns, and showing the spot where each casualty occurred, and the number of lives lost by it, is added.

Tables distinguishing the casualties according to the force of the wind, show that the greater portion of casualties happen with the force of the wind at and under 8, ("fresh gale,") or under circumstances in which a ship, if seaworthy and properly manned and found, ought to be well able to keep the sea. The numbers are as follow: With the force of the wind at and under 8, *i. e.*, from "calm to fresh gale," 731; with the force of the wind from 9 to 12, *i. e.*, from "a strong gale to a hurricane," 648.

It has been observed that the wreck returns for late years show that collisions are greatly on the increase, and that, from 1855 to the present time, they have nearly trebled the numbers reported in previous years. It is probable that collisions should have increased with the increased trade and consequent increase in the number of ships frequenting narrow channels; but the sudden increase which the returns seem to show to have taken place since 1854 admits of a very simple explanation.

It will be seen from our tables, that for the five years ending 1854 the annual average number of collisions reported was 91, whilst for the five years ending 1859 the annual average number reported was 298.

In 1855, the first year of the sudden increase, the wreck register was transferred to the Board of Trade and officers of the customs and coast guard; and receivers of wreck, acting under that Board, were empowered, by act of Parliament, to examine on oath the masters and crews of ships

and other persons able to give information respecting wrecks. These officers are also authorized to reward, if necessary, any person bringing the earliest information of a wreck. From these powers, and from the nature of the employment and the staff at their disposal, they have every opportunity of becoming well acquainted with the nature and circumstances of almost every casualty, and they lose no time in reporting to the Board of Trade.

It is easily understood that the Board of Trade, with its statutory powers and ample means at its disposal, obtains more reports and more accurate information of collisions, which of course happen at sea beyond the immediate cognizance of the coast guard, than it was possible for the Admiralty to obtain under the previous system, when the means available were much less. The great increase is, therefore, in all probability, due to the increased number of reports, rather than to any great increase in the number of collisions.

The *Chart* contains a list of the life-boats stationed on the coasts of the United Kingdom. It appears from the table that the number at the end of 1860 was 173, against 158 in 1859. The increase in the number of life-boats is as follow:

	1858.	1859.	1860.
Number of boats under the management of the National Life-Boat Institution,.....	81	92	110
Number of boats under other management,.....	68	66	63

Of the number in existence at the end of the year 1860, 91 are under the management of the National Life-Boat Institution, but are subsidized by the Board of Trade, and five are subsidized by the Board of Trade direct, without the intervention of the institution. Of the remainder, 19 are maintained by the institution and 58 by local bodies.

The mortar and rocket apparatus is maintained in a very effective state: there has been an increase of 17 in the number of stations during the past year; many of the existing stations have been removed, and the apparatus has, in many cases, been renewed and remodeled.

Through the energy and zeal of the officers and men of the coast-guard service, great proficiency has been attained in working the apparatus from the shore. It does, however, sometimes happen, that after a communication is effected, the crew are unable to use it from ignorance of the working of the apparatus, notwithstanding the means taken to make it known by circulation of hand-bills, by inserting the directions in ships' logs, by exercising the apparatus in the presence of merchant seamen, where possible, and by examining masters and mates in its use and application when they are passing for certificates of competency.

The expense of providing and maintaining the life-boats and apparatus for saving life will be seen as annexed.

The sum paid to the Royal National Life-Boat Institution during 1860 is £2,486 13s. 6d. The payments by the Board of Trade direct, for rewards and gratuities, and for services at wrecks, amount to £918 8s. 6d.; and the expenses of maintaining the mortar and rocket apparatus, to £2,456 15s. 8d.; being a total payment of £5,861 17s. 5d. for saving and endeavoring to save life during the year 1860.

The mortar and rocket apparatus and life-boats cannot be over-rated as means for saving life. The good they have effected will most easily be

seen by a reference to the following table, showing the number of life-boats, &c., and the number of lives saved during the last six years:

Years.	*No. of Life-Boats.*	*No. of Mortar and Rocket Apparatus.*	*No. of Lives saved on the Coast by assistance from the Shore.*
1855,.....	47	....	1,098
1856,.....	47	....	1,336
1857,.....	66	198	1,161
1858,.....	81	216	1,161
1859,.....	92	216	1,566
1860,.....	110	233	1,383
Total to 1860,.....	....	....	8,205

The number of lives saved during 1860 on or near the coasts of the United Kingdom, of which reports have been received, was 2,152, against 2,332 in 1859. The number saved, with more or less risk, by assistance from the shore during 1860, was 1,383, or nearly-two-thirds of the whole number saved. The life-boats saved 326 lives, being greatly in excess of the number saved by life-boats during the two previous years; and the mortar and rocket apparatus saved 408 lives. The remainder (viz., 635) were saved by fishing boats, smacks, &c., at sea, and 14 by individual exertions of a meritorious character.

Charts, showing the wrecks and casualties for the year 1860, the wrecks and strandings involving loss of life during the last eleven years, and the collisions involving loss of life during the same period, are appended.

I. *British Wrecks and Casualties for Five Years.*

Months in which Casualties happened.	Number of Wrecks and Casualties in 1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
January,.....	149 ..	281 ..	124 ..	115 ..	206
February,.....	154 ..	64 ..	116 ..	139 ..	137
March,.....	96 ..	166 ..	148 ..	136 ..	71
April,.....	74 ..	76 ..	115 ..	126 ..	70
May,.....	57 ..	33 ..	48 ..	32 ..	187
June,.....	32 ..	34 ..	30 ..	27 ..	74
July,.....	48 ..	33 ..	61 ..	34 ..	30
August,.....	51 ..	75 ..	33 ..	52 ..	74
September,.....	98 ..	66 ..	91 ..	86 ..	84
October,.....	99 ..	135 ..	148 ..	343 ..	156
November,.....	129 ..	94 ..	120 ..	170 ..	164
December,.....	166 ..	86 ..	136 ..	156 ..	126
Total,.....	1,153 ..	1,143 ..	1,170 ..	1,416 ..	1,379

II. *Statement of the number of Lives lost on the Coast of the United Kingdom during the Eleven Years ended December,* 1860.

1850,.....	645	1855,.....	437	1860,.....	466
1851,.....	277	1856,.....	297		
1852,.....	838	1857,.....	439	Total,.....	6,883
1853,.....	842	1858,.....	243		
1854,.....	834	1859,.....	1,565	Annual average,..	625

III. *Number of Lives Saved from Shipwreck on the Coast of the United Kingdom during the Years* 1856, 1857, 1858, 1859 *and* 1860.

1856,.....	2,243	1858,.....	1,555	1860,.....	3,697
1857,.....	1,668	1859,.....	2,332	Total,.....	11,495

IV. *Wrecks and Casualties, distinguishing the Ships and Cargoes Insured and Uninsured, and the amount of Insurance, where known.*

	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
No. of vessels reported to be insured,	484	599	476	554	514
Amount of insurance,.....	..	£ 451,513	£ 388,904	£ 587,772	£ 463,005
No. of cargoes reported to be insured,	110	84	62	87	57
Amount of insurance,.....	..	£ 21,622	£ 25,413	£ 101,212	£ 21,274
Total amount of insurance,.....	..	473,135	414,317	688,984	484,279
No. of vessels reported as not insured,	179	179	232	316	280
" cargoes " "	264	118	152	173	145
No. of vessels, whether insured or not, unknown,.....	490	365	462	546	585
No. of cargoes, whether insured or not, unknown,.....	592	741	765	923	893
Ships in ballast,.....	187	200	191	233	284
Total,.....	1,153	1,143	1,170	1,416	1,379
Est'd No. of ships lost or damaged,..	..	507	576	860	817
" Amount of insurance,.....	..	£ 393,859	£ 343,117	£ 528,261	£ 508,754
" No. of cargoes lost or damaged,	..	169	228	294	258
" Amount of insurance,.....	..	£ 125,442	£ 92,648	£ 221,860	£ 94,311
Total estimated loss as reported,....	..	519,301	435,656	750,121	603,065

V. *British Wrecks and Casualties, distinguishing the Description and Tonnage of the Ships.*

Description of Ships.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
Steamships,.....	34	39	48	34	38
Barks,.....	139	129	102	123	110
Billy boys,.....	..	..	4	4	13
Brigs,.....	299	311	280	292	352
Brigantines,.....	66	51	85	98	99
Chasse maree,.....	3	1	..	4	..
Cobles,.....	2	1	2	1	1
Cutters,.....	3	8	2	17	8
Dandy,.....	..	3	7	10	5
Flats,.....	..	4	5	4	2
Galliots,.....	18	21	15	22	16
Hermaphrodites,.....	2	..	..	..	..
Hookers,.....	..	1	1	..	1
Ketches,.....	9	5	6	20	13
Keels,.....	..	2	1	1	1
Luggers,.....	11	11	26	12	25
Polaccas,.....	1	..	..	4	7
Ships,.....	92	58	55	50	49
Schooners,.....	342	354	374	491	421
Sloops,.....	76	68	89	127	114
Smacks,.....	47	65	55	90	70
Snows,.....	4	8	4	8	11
Trows,,.....	1	..	..	1	1
Yachts,.....	3	1	4	2	4
Yawls,.....	..	..	4	..	15
Unknown,.....	1	2	1	1	3
Total,.....	1,153	1,143	1,170	1,416	1,379

Description of Ships.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
Vessels not exceeding 50 tons,	.. ..	145 ..	172 ..	199 ..	306 ..	284
51 and not exceeding 100 "	541 ..	338 ..	321 ..	352 ..	455 ..	393
101 " " 300 "	496 ..	472 ..	473 ..	467 ..	493 ..	557
301 " " 600 "	67 ..	137 ..	114 ..	96 ..	105 ..	105
601 " " 900 "	27 ..	34 ..	43 ..	28 ..	33 ..	25
901 " " 1,200 "	4 ..	15 ..	7 ..	23 ..	17 ..	9
1,200 tons and upwards,.....	6 ..	12 ..	13 ..	5 ..	5 ..	6
Unknown,.....	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	2 ..	..
Total,.....	1,141 ..	1,153 ..	1,143 ..	1,170 ..	1,416 ..	1,379

IV. *Total number of Wrecks and Casualties during the Years* 1852 *to* 1860 *inclusive, distinguishing British from Foreign Ships, with the total number of Voyages of British and Foreign Ships.*

Year ending	Number of Voyages. *British Ships.*	*Foreign Ships.*	*Total Ships.*	Number of Casualties. *British Ships.*	*Foreign Ships.*	*Total Ships.*
Dec. 31, 1852,.....	197,580 ..	34,118 ..	231,698 ..	946 ..	169 ..	1,115
" 1853,.....	198,430 ..	44,549 ..	242,979 ..	688 ..	144 ..	832
" 1854,.....	195,165 ..	43,510 ..	238,675 ..	824 ..	163 ..	987
" 1855,.....	191,813 ..	38,238 ..	230,051 ..	974 ..	167 ..	1,141
" 1856,.....	206,339 ..	40,792 ..	247,131 ..	916 ..	237 ..	1,153
" 1857,.....	213,185 ..	44,818 ..	258,003 ..	930 ..	213 ..	1,143
" 1858,.....	201,872 ..	45,713 ..	247,585 ..	961 ..	209 ..	1,170
" 1859,.....	206,652 ..	46,713 ..	253,365 ..	1,228 ..	188 ..	1,416
" 1860,.....	209,026 ..	51,165 ..	260,191 ..	1,193 ..	186 ..	1,379
Total,.....	1,820,062	389,616	2,209,678	8,660	1,676	10,336

The Sea.—The mean depth of the sea is, according to La Place, from four to five miles. If the existing waters were increased only by one-fourth, it would drown the earth, with the exception of some high mountains. If the volume of the ocean were augmented only by one-eighth, considerable portions of the present continents would be submerged, and the seasons would be changed all over the globe. Evaporation would be so much extended that rains would fall continually, destroy the harvests, fruits and flowers, and subvert the whole economy of nature. There is, perhaps, nothing more beautiful in our whole system than the process by which the fields are irrigated from the skies—the rivers are fed from the mountains—and the ocean restrained within bounds, which it never can exceed so long as that process continues on the present scale. The vapor raised by the sun from the sea flows wherever it is lighter than the atmosphere, and condensed, it falls upon the earth in water. If we suppose the sea, then, to be considerably diminished, the Amazon and the Mississippi, those inland seas of the Western world, would become inconsiderable brooks; the brooks would wholly disappear, the atmosphere would be deprived of its due proportion of humidity. All nature would assume the garb of desolation; the bird would droop on the wing; the lower animals would perish on the barren soil, and man himself would wither away like the sickly grass at his feet. He must indeed be incorrigibly blind, or scarcely elevated in the scale of reason above the monkey, who would presume to say, or could for a moment honestly think, when duly informed on the subject, that the machinery by which the evaporation and condensation has been constantly carried upon the earth for so many centuries exhibits no traces of Divine science, power and benevolence towards mankind, whose subsistence and happiness absolutely depend upon the circumstance of the waters of the ocean, earth and air, uniformly preserving the average of their present mutual proportions.—*Quarterly Review.*

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

I. The Statute of Frauds. II. Insurance. III. Fire Policy. IV. Use of Camphene. V. Rail-Roads. VI. The British Law of Bankruptcy. VII. Rail-Road Mortgages. VIII. Mosaics and Precious Stones. IX. Playing Cards.

The Statute of Frauds.

A Promise to Pay the Debt of Another.—As is well known, the statute of frauds, first enacted during the reign of Charles II., (1677,) has been generally adopted in this country; yet none of the various statutes of the States exactly agree with the English statute, or with one another; but still, in substance, they are all very nearly alike.

The interpreting of this enactment has given rise to an almost endless amount of litigation; and even now cases are reported every day, on points which would seem long since to have been settled by our courts, and which litigation could therefore have been avoided, had the parties to the contract understood the true meaning of the statute, as already thus interpreted. Many of its provisions, too, relate so directly to commercial transactions that it is impossible for any one engaged in any mercantile or commercial business to be too familiar with them. We are led to these remarks from seeing a case reported in the last number of Gray's *Mass. Reports*, (Stone *et al. vs.* Walker *et al.*, 13 *Gray*, 613,) involving a point which we had supposed was already so clearly settled by repeated decisions that it would be impossible again to raise a question about it.

It will be remembered that this statute of frauds relates to several distinct kinds of contracts, but we would only call attention, at this time, to that provision requiring a promise to answer for the debt of another person to be in writing. To understand this provision fully it is only necessary to bear in mind one or two principles which the decisions made under it have clearly laid down.

And in the first place, of course, there must be a *consideration* for such a promise, to make it good. Hence, even if one promises in writing to answer for a debt of another, where there is no consideration for the promise, the promise cannot be enforced. The consideration may be either "a benefit to the promissor or else an injury or loss to the promisee, sustained by him at the instance and request of the promissor;" but there must be, as we have said, some consideration, either of one kind or of the other, to sustain the promise.

Then, again, it must be, as the statute says, in writing. But here arises the question which has been the source of most of the litigation under this provision, and it is this: What promises or contracts come *within this statute?* By the words "within the statute" is meant what contracts the statute *applies to.* Our courts, in interpreting this provision and answering this question, have long since made a distinction, which, if remembered, will explain the whole thing, and clear up the difficulty. They have settled, that where the promise is an *original* undertaking it

does not come within the statute, and need not, therefore, be in writing; but where it is a *collateral* promise, it must be in writing. For instance: "If two come to a shop, and one buys, and the other, to give him credit, promises the seller, 'If he does not pay you I will,' this is a *collateral* undertaking, and void by the statute of frauds, unless in writing. But if he says, 'Let him have the goods—I will be your paymaster,' this is an *original* undertaking, an undertaking as for himself, and he shall be intended to be the very buyer, and the other to act but as his servant." This is the substance of an illustration in an old English case, but the same has been used and the principle affirmed in very many of our American cases. In the recent one above referred to (13 *Gray*, 613) the court says: "If the promise is made by one in his own name to pay for goods or money delivered to or services done for another, that is *original;* it is his own contract, on good consideration, and is called *original*, and is binding on him without writing. But if the language is, 'Let him have money or goods, or do service for him, and I will see you paid,' or, 'I promise you that he will pay,' or, 'If he do not pay I will,' this is *collateral*, and, though made on good consideration, it is void by the statute of frauds, unless in writing." This principle will also be found illustrated in the older Massachusetts case of NELSON *vs.* BOYNTON, 3 *Met.* 400, as well as in numberless other cases in other States.

Thus it will be seen that the question always to be decided is, (see *Parsons on Laws of Business*, 77,) To whom did the seller give and to whom was he *authorized* to give credit? This question the *jury* will decide, upon consideration of all the facts, under the direction of the court. If a seller sues one to whom he did not deliver the goods, on the ground that this other promised to pay for them, then the question is, Did this other promise to pay for them as for his own goods? for then it is an *original* promise, and the promise need not be in writing; or did he promise to pay for them as for the goods of the party receiving them, and in case such party did not pay? then it is a *collateral* promise, and must be in writing. If, on examination of the books of the seller, it appears that he charged the goods to the party who received them, it will be difficult, if not impossible, for him to maintain that he sold them to the other party. But if he charged them to this other, such an entry would be good evidence, and, if confirmed by circumstances, strong evidence, that this party was the purchaser. But it cannot be conclusive, for the party not receiving the goods may always prove, if he can, that he was not the buyer, and that he promised only as surety for the party who was the buyer, and, consequently, his promise cannot be enforced, if not in writing. And, in general, in determining this question, the court will always look to the actual character of the transaction and the intention of the parties.

There is also another kind of promise, which is *original* and not *collateral*, and which does not, therefore, come within the statute. It is this: when the promise to pay the debt of another is not made at the time the debt is contracted, but subsequently, and arises out of some new and original consideration of benefit or harm moving between the newly contracting parties. As KENT, Ch. J., says, (8 *J. R.* 29,) "If a promise to pay the debt of another be founded on a new and distinct consideration, independent of the debt, and one moving between the parties to the new promise, it is not within the statute, but is an original promise."

For instance, take the case of SKELTON *vs.* BREWSTER, (8 *J. R.* 376,) where A., in consideration that B. would deliver him all his household goods, and that C. would discharge B. from execution, promises to pay C. the amount of the execution. In that case it was held that the promise of C. was an *original* undertaking and not within the statute. So, also, in GOLD *vs.* PHILIPS, (10 *J. R.* 412,) the court held, that if A., in consideration of a sale of land to him by B., promise to be accountable for debts due C. from B., it is an *original* undertaking, and not within the statute. So, also, in MERCEIN *vs.* ANDREWS, (10 *Wend.* 461,) it was held, that a promise to pay the debt of a third person, in consideration of the promisee surrendering property levied upon by execution, is, in like manner, an *original* undertaking, and need not be in writing to render it valid. These cases show very clearly the general principle, that when the promise to pay the debt of another is subsequent to the contraction of the debt, and arises out of some new consideration, such a promise does not come within the statute. We have also seen above, that when the promise is such that the guarantor becomes actually the purchaser, the promise in that case is, also, not within the statute. These exceptions, then, (if we may be permitted to call them such,) embrace, we believe, all the explanations necessary for a right understanding of this vexed question; and, could these principles and explanations be as familiar as household words (and they ought to be) to every one, we should have no more litigation under this provision of the statute of frauds.

INSURANCE.

Insufficiency of Policies.—In our last number was reported the case of TAYLOR *vs.* THE ÆTNA LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY OF MASSACHUSETTS, (13 *Gray*, 434,) illustrating the necessity of stating in an insurance policy the precise restrictions the company wishes to make to their contract. We find in the last volume of the Reports of the Court of Appeals of New-York State, (CASLER *vs.* THE CONNECTICUT MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY, 22 *N. Y.* 427,) another instance of this same carelessness in wording a policy. In fact, the books are full of just such instances. Yet nothing is more damaging to insurance companies, as all know, than litigation as to the nature of the contract after a loss has happened. Nor is there, as a general thing, any need for it. The contract should be drawn up in simple, precise language, leaving out all vague generalities, so that the assured may know, without a doubt, what he can depend upon. When there is an actual honest loss, we think that the claim should be paid at once, and no attempt made on the part of the company to dig up defences or to creep out of their liability. In most cases, however, we are happy to say, that the difficulty between the insurer and the assured arises, as we have intimated, not from a dishonest desire of the company or its officers, but from having inserted in the contract phrases used in common conversation which have no accurate and well-defined meaning. For instance, take the case (13 *Gray*, 434) referred to in our last number. There the company probably wished not to assume the risks incident to a second-class passage to California in a second-class vessel. But fancying that if they expressed a part, the remainder would be understood, they simply restricted the assured to a first-class vessel. In ordinary conversation, if one were to tell us that he made a voyage in a first-

class vessel, we might, to be sure, suppose that he did not go "as a steerage passenger." But in drawing a contract it will not do to express only a part of what is meant, and rely upon such loose construction to work out the remainder of the intended meaning. Especially is this true of an insurance contract; for a policy of insurance is a contract of indemnity, and must, therefore, receive such a construction of the words employed in it as will make the protection it affords co-extensive, if possible, with the risk of the assured. (1 *Hall*, 166.) When, therefore, it is desired that the assured should not "pass to and from California" *as a steerage passenger*, it must, without doubt, be so stated in the policy.

The case of CASLER *vs.* THE CONNECTICUT MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY (22 *N. Y.* 427) is also, as we have said, an error of the same class, and the precise error made in this instance is one that many companies have fallen into, as appears by the policies we have examined, issued by them. The company in this case wished, we suppose, not to assume the risk the assured would incur by going into some of the almost unsettled portions of our country's territories. To express this wish the policy restricted the assured "*to the settled limits of the United States.*" Of course, when the court came to give effect to such a clause, it was held to be too vague and uncertain to mean what the company supposed it did, and therefore decided that it only restricted the assured *to the settled boundaries of the United States*—that is, that the policy allowed the assured to pass through any of the States (with the exceptions specially named) or territories, whether settled or unsettled. But we deem this case of so much importance that we shall insert it almost entire, simply adding that too much care and study cannot be spent upon each word of a policy, and the simpler and more exact the words, the less chance there will be of misunderstanding and litigation. The facts and opinion of the case we refer to (22 *N. Y.* 427) are in substance as follow:

Facts.—This action was brought to recover the amount insured by a policy issued by the defendant upon the life of NICHOLAS CASLER, of which the plaintiff was the assignee. One of the conditions of the policy was in substance that if the assured should pass beyond the settled limits of the United States, (except into the settled limits of the British provinces of Canada, &c.,) or visit parts of the United States lying south of the southern boundary of Virginia and Kentucky during certain periods of the year, then the policy should be void. The complaint averred the issuing of the policy and its assignment, and that the death of CASLER took place on the 21st June, 1850, within the settled limits of the United States, and while the policy was in force. The answer denied the averment in respect to the death of CASLER, and alleged affirmatively that on the 21st of June, 1850, he was beyond the settled limits of the United States.

Upon the trial it was proved that in the spring of 1850, CASLER started upon a journey to California by the route over the plains from Fort Independence, in the direction of the Great Salt Lake, and at the upper crossing of the South Fork of the Platte River was seized with cholera, and died there on the 21st of June, 1850.

The judge who tried the cause found, among other things, that the assured died at the time and place specified in the complaint, and, as a conclusion of law, that he did not pass and was not, at the time of his death, beyond the settled limits of the United States.

The judgment entered upon his direction for the plaintiff, was affirmed at General Term, and the defendant appealed to the Court of Appeals. The following is the decision of the Court of Appeals, affirming the judgment at General Term:

The Hons. W. J. BACON and S. L. SELDEN delivered the opinions.

Decision of the Court.—BACON, J., in his opinion, says: "It is claimed by the counsel for the plaintiff that the words 'settled limits' as used in the policy, mean 'established boundaries,' and that they are susceptible of no other fair or reasonable interpretation. On the other hand, the defendant's counsel insists that these words are synonymous with the phrase 'the region of the settlements,' and that consequently, as the assured could only reach California by going into and passing through an unsettled region of the country, the policy was forfeited.

"It is, on all hands, conceded that the place of CASLER's decease was within the established boundaries of the United States. If the words 'settled limits' had been only once used in the policy, and in no other connection than the one in which they first occur, I think it would readily be conceded, that the most natural and obvious interpretation is that given to them by the plaintiff. The word 'settled,' when used in connection with the word 'limits,' has its most natural synonym in the words 'fixed,' 'determined,' 'established.' And the word 'limit' most obviously and normally designates a bound, a restraint, a circumscription, a boundary. Then, again, if the words are to be understood in any other sense than as designating the recognised or established boundaries of the country, there are practical difficulties in giving them an application, such as would almost authorize a court to pronounce them void for uncertainty. What are we to understand by 'the region of the settlements,' and when could a man be said to be within or beyond there? How thickly must, or how sparsely may, any given section of the country be populated to come clearly within the scope of these terms? We have, in the very heart of this State, a vast region almost entirely untenanted by man. From the eastern boundary of the county of Oneida, extending almost to the shores of Lake Champlain, there stretches a wide expanse of unsettled and almost literally uninhabited country. It is the region of the primeval forests, with their native denizens, an 'unbroken, unbounded, magnificent wilderness.' Since the unfortunate HERISHOFF, more than half a century ago, penetrated the western verge of JOHN BROWN's tract, and for a short period attempted a residence at the outlet of one of the Moose lakes, not a dozen settlers have ventured to follow him, and locate permanently in this wild region. It is visited, indeed, during certain periods of the year, by sportsmen intent on game, or by those whose purpose it is for a season to banish themselves from society, and realize that 'boundless contiguity of shade' which the poet sighed for. It is far enough beyond the region of the settlements; and yet it would be a rather startling proposition that any one who should happen to have such a life policy as this, and who, for the purposes of relaxation, amusement or the love of adventure, should penetrate that great wilderness, would, by that act, run the risk of forfeiting all his interest in this policy.

"Again, there are in several of the Western States extensive prairies, varying in width from fifty to a hundred miles. On either side are the habitations of men and the accompaniments and appliances of civilized life; but in the wide and sea-like expanse nothing human lives. Sup-

pose the traveller, passing over this region, should be overtaken by sudden illness and perish in the midst of the prairie, without aid or the power of invoking it, would he be within or without the region of the settlements? Considerations like these soon inevitably lead to the conclusion that the language of the policy must have been used to indicate the established boundaries of the country; and such, upon the whole, I am satisfied is the interpretation that should be given to them. This is the more natural and ordinary signification of the language, and it is susceptible of a precise and definite application, for the boundaries of the nation are either well known or are capable of perfect ascertainment."

SELDEN, J., in his opinion, also says: But this question does not depend upon any refined criticism upon the language used. The clause is to have a reasonable interpretation. To provide that the insured should not, without the consent of the company, go without the bounds of the United States, would be a perfectly natural and proper provision; and this is precisely what the phrase in question means, upon a plain literal construction of its terms. But what sort of a contract should we have upon the other construction? Who can interpret the phrase, "the region of the settlements?" Can any one tell, with any precision, what it means? Is it not, in the highest degree, vague and indefinite? It is a phrase which would convey some vague idea, if used in a loose conversation, but which would seem to be utterly out of place in a contract where some degree of precision is required; and yet it is proposed to discard a phrase used by the parties, the literal meaning of which is simple, plain and appropriate, and to substitute in its place one invented by the court, the meaning of which is utterly vague and uncertain. I suppose Salt Lake City to be something of a "settlement;" could the insured, under such a policy, go there? If not, for the reason that the intermediate territory was unsettled, how near must he get to the city before he would be in "the region of the settlements?" Suppose he was residing there when insured, could he go for any purpose into the surrounding territory, or must he confine himself to the bounds of the city? Again, assuming that the insured could go to Marquette, upon Lake Superior, without going out of "the region of the settlements," could he cross from there to the Mississippi River? Once more: Suppose he should go, by the advice of his physician, upon a hunting or fishing excursion to the centre of the JOHN BROWN tract in this State, would he, when there, be within or without the region of the settlements? I confess myself unable to give a satisfactory answer to any of these questions.

It has been suggested that, by the phrase "settled limits," it was intended to embrace all the organized States and Territories of the Union, and to exclude all other territory. The language, however, seems ill-adapted to express such an idea, and there is nothing in the circumstances or in the nature of the contract to indicate any such intention. It is certainly safer, and more in accordance with legal principles, where there is so much doubt, to adhere to the plain, literal meaning of the terms of the contract. In accordance with these opinions the judgment was affirmed.

Notice of Subsequent Insurance.—We also find reported (22 *N. Y.* 402) the case of BIGLER *et al. vs.* THE NEW-YORK INSURANCE COMPANY, in which the question is finally settled, that when the condition of a fire policy requires the assured to give notice of any subsequent insurance,

the policy is avoided by a failure to give notice of a subsequent policy, *although the latter be void*, its invalidity, however, not appearing on its face. This decision does not agree with those of several other States, yet of course it must hereafter be considered the law of New-York, although it would seem that where the subsequent policy *was void*, there would be, in reality, no "*subsequent insurance*" of which to give notice. The facts of this case were these:

Facts.—On the 5th of September, 1851, the plaintiffs effected an insurance with the defendants in the sum of $1,000 on their saw-mill in this State, and the defendants issued to them a fire policy in the usual form. This policy contained the usual stipulation, that if the insured should make any other insurance, and should not, with all reasonable diligence, give notice to the secretary and have the same endorsed on the said policy, or otherwise acknowledged by the corporation in writing, then the said policy should cease and be of no further effect.

On the 30th of January, 1852, the plaintiffs procured from the Globe Insurance Company another policy on the same property for the sum of $1,000, and this policy contained the stipulation, that in case the assured should have already any other insurance against loss by fire on the property thereby insured, not notified to the Globe Insurance Company, and mentioned in or endorsed upon their policy, then the policy issued by them should be void and of no effect. We have seen that the plaintiffs did have a prior insurance with the defendants, but there was no endorsement on the Globe policy nor statement in or annexed to it, showing that there was any such prior insurance. Nor did the plaintiffs notify the defendants of the issuing of this policy by the Globe Insurance Company.

On the 31st of May, 1852, the property thus insured was consumed by fire, whereby the plaintiff sustained a loss to the amount of $2,800. Thereupon the plaintiffs brought an action against the Globe Company for the amount of the policy issued by them, and in settlement of this a draft was given by an agent of the Globe Company, which, however, at the time of this trial, had not been paid.

Decision.—On these facts the court held, as we have stated above, that the plaintiffs could not recover. The following is the substance of the opinion of the court:

I. The only question presented for our consideration is whether the plaintiffs, in the face of the conceded violation of their agreement with the defendants, can recover on this policy. That agreement was, that in case they should effect any other insurance upon the property covered by the defendants' policy, then the defendants' policy was to cease and be of no further effect, unless the plaintiffs should give notice to the secretary of the defendants of such further insurance, and have the same endorsed on the policy, or otherwise acknowledged in writing by the corporation.

Here it is undeniable, upon the facts proven in the case, that the plaintiffs did effect further and other insurance upon the same property, but did not give the defendants the required notice. By virtue of the agreement between the parties, the policy issued by the defendants was, from the happening of that event, to cease and be of no further effect.

II. The plaintiffs seek to excuse themselves for this breach of their agreement, by alleging that the policy obtained by them from the Globe Company was void by reason of the stipulation and agreement contained

in that policy, "that in case the assured shall have already any other insurance against loss by fire on the property hereby insured, not notified to this company, and mentioned in or endorsed upon this policy, then this insurance shall be void and of no effect." The plaintiffs say, therefore, that this latter policy was void, and hence, that they had no further or other insurance than the defendants' policy. Thus the agreement in that regard with these defendants was not violated. In assuming this position, they overlook the fact that this agreement or stipulation was made for the benefit of the Globe Company, and that it was competent for that company to waive it. It would appear that in the suit brought by these plaintiffs against that company, its liability on the policy was acknowledged, and a draft given to pay the amount of the loss. Hence the plaintiffs, although they now claim the Globe policy to be void, might receive the benefit of both policies, if allowed to recover in this action, and their answer, therefore, simply amounts to this, that this second insurance might legally have been resisted and avoided. Such was not the agreement between the parties to this action. For good reasons, the insurer and the assured agreed that if the latter thereafter made any other insurance on the property, such act should vitiate the policy. The defendants meant to have the plaintiffs take some risk themselves in reference to the insured property, and this was secured by its not being insured to its full value. This safeguard was lost when the second policy was taken, and that was precisely what the defendants intended and had a clear right to prevent, by the clause under consideration.

III. It is earnestly insisted, however, on the part of the plaintiffs, as above stated, that, in fact, they had no other insurance; the policy issued by the Globe Company being invalid, and that the "other insurance," in the contemplation of the policy, means legal and valid insurance. In reference to this point we have already made some suggestions. But assuming to be correct, that it was invalid, and that, consequently, the plaintiffs had no other legal insurance on the property, still we say the plaintiffs' position is untenable. The question thus presented arose in the Supreme Court of the United States, in the case of CARPENTER *vs.* THE Providence WASHINGTON INSURANCE COMPANY, (16 *Pet.* 495,) where this point was very fully discussed, and a decision made against the position of the plaintiff in this action. We regard this case as in point, and the reasoning of the court is satisfactory to us, and we think, therefore, the rule adopted by it should be sanctioned by this court.

Such is the substance of the opinion of the court in this case. As we have said above, however, a different view has been taken of this same question by the courts of Maine (37 *Maine*, 137) and of Massachusetts. (23 *Pick.* 418.) Both these States have held, that as, under the facts of the case, the second policy would be void, it could not amount to another insurance, or in any way affect the first policy. This seems to us to be the most reasonable conclusion.

Policy—Written Portions to prevail over Printed Portions.—We also find in this same volume of the New-York Reports (22 *N. Y.* 441) the case of HARPER *vs.* THE NEW-YORK CITY INSURANCE COMPANY, re-affirming the principle decided in 17 *N. Y.* 194, and holding that the printed portions of a policy are to be controlled by the written portions. In this case the plaintiffs' insurance was upon their printing and book materials, stock, &c., "privilege for a printing office, bindery, &c.," as appeared

from the description in the *written* portion of the policy. The *printed* condition declared in substance, that if camphene was used and a loss was occasioned thereby, the insurer would not be liable. The jury found, in answer to interrogatories specially submitted to them, that the use of camphene was according to a general and established usage in the printing and book business, as carried on by the plaintiffs, and that such use was necessary in that business. The plaintiffs used camphene in this manner, and the fire was occasioned by a workman throwing a lighted match into a pan upon the floor containing camphene.

On these facts the court held, that as camphene was necessary in the business carried on by the plaintiffs, the insurers were, under the written portions of the policy, liable for a loss occasioned by such necessary and customary use of camphene, although the printed condition declared that if the article were used, and a loss were occasioned thereby, the insurer would not be liable. By insuring the plaintiffs' stock with the privilege of a printing office and book bindery, the use of such materials as were necessary in that business were allowed, otherwise the contract was a mere delusion. The printed condition, exempting the underwriters from loss when occasioned by this article, should, therefore, be construed as referring to uses not within the privilege thus granted. So far as the two parts of the contract are repugnant to each other, the printed form must yield to the deliberate written expression.

Decisions in Admiralty.

United States Circuit Court, New-York. Before Judge Nelson, November 8, 1861:

Simon Banks *vs.* The Steamboat Metropolis.—The libel is filed in this case to recover damages against the Metropolis for a collision with the sloop Golden Rule, on the night of the 12th August, 1858, on Long Island Sound, some five or six miles off Falkland's Island, and nearly midway between that and Long Island shore. The sloop was laden with corn and feed, and bound for Providence, Rhode Island. The Metropolis was on her usual trip from Fall River to the city of New-York. The night was not very dark, the wind light, east southeast or southeast, the sloop going but one or two miles an hour, close hauled; she saw the lights of the steamer several miles off, and, when within some two or three miles, coming on a course apparently towards her, a bright light was hoisted by a hand standing on the deck; and afterwards, the steamer still continuing her course, he stood upon top of the cabin, holding the light as high as he could with his arm.

The pilot of the Metropolis admits he saw a light of a vessel some two or three miles off on his port bow, but that it soon disappeared, and he did not again see it till the moment of the collision. No change was made in the course or speed of the vessel, which was sixteen miles an hour, after discerning the light, nor, for aught that appears, was there any attention paid to it. The look-out admits he saw no light, nor did he report any till just as the collision happened. The better opinion, upon the proofs, is that, with a competent and vigilant look-out on the steamer, the sloop might have been seen even without a light, as the night was not very dark; but, with the light exhibited on the sloop, of

which we cannot doubt, as all on board testify to it, there is no excuse for not having seen her in time to have avoided the disaster. We consider the case a very plain one of fault on the part of the steamer. As to the damages, we agree with the court below that the libellant was entitled to recover on the basis of a total loss. The injury to the vessel and cargo was so great—and both submerged near the middle of the Sound, which, at the place of collision, was some sixteen miles wide—he was not under obligation to encounter the hazard and expense of attempting their rescue, or to save anything from the wreck. If the attempt had resulted in the increase of his loss, which it probably would, the respondents would not have been liable for it. Decree affirmed.

Rail-Roads.

Where two corporations, chartered respectively by the States of Michigan and Indiana, with power to each to build and operate a rail-road within its own State, have united in the business of transporting passengers over a third road in the State of Illinois, beyond the limits authorized by the charter of either, such corporations are jointly liable for injuries to a passenger resulting from the negligence of their employees. (Bissell *vs.* The Michigan Southern and Northern Indiana R. R. Co. *N. Y. Court of Appeals.*)

The New British Law on Bankruptcy and Insolvency.

The following is a summary of the most important changes made in the law of bankruptcy by the bill which received the royal assent on July 6th. In regard to the merits of this bill the London *Times* says:

"There can scarcely be a doubt that these alterations in the law will not only greatly lessen the expenses attending bankruptcy proceedings, but will be most acceptable to the mercantile classes, releasing them from the official trammels with which those proceedings have hitherto been invested. It is believed that a bill will be brought in, next session, to consolidate the law in one statute."

Non-traders are to be liable to the bankruptcy laws in respect of future debts. The seizure and sale of the goods of a debtor, under an execution for debt above fifty pounds, will be an act of bankruptcy, and all such sales must be by public auction, duly advertised. Per centages are no longer to be taken from bankrupts' estates, and the official assignees and messengers are to be greatly reduced in number, and paid by fixed salaries.

At the first meeting under a bankruptcy the creditors may remove the proceedings to any county court, or, if they think fit, determine to wind up the estate under a private arrangement, and also decide whether the bankrupt shall have any and what allowance for support. The official assignee is to collect the debts not exceeding ten pounds, and the court is to order in whose custody the books and papers belonging to the estate shall be deposited. The creditors are to determine whether the estate shall be realized by an official assignee or assignees chosen by themselves, and, in the latter case, may allow them the assistance of a paid manager. All moneys received by the assignees are to be forthwith

paid into the Bank of England, to the account of the accountant in bankruptcy, and in country districts, where there shall be no branch of the Bank of England, then into such other bank as the court shall direct.

The creditors' assignee must, every three months, submit a statement of his accounts, with vouchers, to the official assignee for examination, and, after such accounts have been passed, the official assignee is to send a printed copy thereof, or a statement showing the nature and result of the transactions and accounts of the assignee, to every creditor who has proved under the bankruptcy.

The proof of debts may be made by sending to the assignees, through the general post, a statement of such debt and of the account, if any, between the creditor and the bankrupt, together with a declaration, signed by the creditor, that such statement is a full, true and complete statement of account between them. False declaration is to be a misdemeanor. All statements of account are to be compared with the books and papers of the bankrupt by the assignees.

The classification of certificates is abolished, and the bankrupt, after passing his last examination, is to be entitled to an order of discharge.

Very stringent penal clauses are provided, and for a variety of offences the court may summarily order imprisonment for any period not exceeding one year, and may refuse or suspend the order of discharge, or attach conditions thereto as to future property. For offences made misdemeanors under the act, bankrupts may be tried in the court, with or without a jury, at the option of the bankrupt, and, on conviction, may be imprisoned for any term not exceeding three years, and be liable to any greater punishment attached to the offence by any existing statute. The court may direct the creditors' assignees, official assignee or any creditor to act as prosecutor, and the costs of such prosecution will be borne in the same manner as the expenses of prosecutions for felonies are now borne; and other costs incurred by such prosecutor, not so defrayed, are to be paid out of the accountant-general's fund.

Most important facilities are afforded to enable a debtor and his creditors to effect private arrangements under trust or composition deeds. A majority of creditors in number, including three-fourths in value, may, on execution of a deed of arrangement, and registering it in the court, bind a minority, and are to have the use of the court in all cases in which they shall require its assistance to decide questions as to disputed claims, or any difference that may arise between the parties interested in the debtor's estate. The court is not, however, to interfere in any manner, except its aid is invoked by some person having a direct interest in the matter. Every deed of composition must be registered.

Rail-Road Mortgages.

A question of considerable importance in relation to rail-road mortgages was decided on the 21st October, in the United States Circuit Court at Chicago, before Judge Drummond, in a suit upon a mortgage on the Peoria and Oquawka Rail-Road. The Chicago *Journal* gives this report:

"A bill having been filed to foreclose the second mortgage upon all that part of the rail-road of that company lying west of Peoria, and its appurtenances, revenues and income, after filing a cross-bill and several

amendments thereto, a petition was again filed for leave to file a further amended bill (cross and supplement) by the company, setting forth that the rail-road of said company extended across the State to its east line, and was completed through and extending, by its eastern connections, to the Atlantic cities; and that upon the eastern portion of the road were other mortgages amounting to two millions two hundred thousand dollars, which would be ruined and rendered worthless if the road west of Peoria could be sold separately, under the mortgage upon it; while if it could be kept together as one road, it would, as was alleged, earn money enough to pay the interest on all its mortgages, and ultimately the principal debt; and also setting forth that the lessees of a part of the road, HESS, HARDING & Co., were obligated, as lessees, to pay the interest upon the mortgage bonds by the terms of the agreement, and that interest had been paid, and that there were fraudulent and collusive arrangements between HESS, HARDING & Co., and the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Rail-Road Company, to procure the sale and separation of the road west of Peoria from that east of that point, &c., &c., and praying a decree so shaped that the road mortgaged should not be sold separately, except upon condition to protect the interests of the bondholders on lines east of Peoria in the preservation of the road as an uninterrupted and single line, and Moss & COMPANY's interest should be first sold and the proceeds applied to pay the interest. His Honor, Judge DRUMMOND, after a very full discussion by the respective counsel, decided that for the purpose of enabling counsel fairly to raise the question in the Supreme Court, if they desired the allegation that the road was built to the east line of the State, and that it was mortgaged, as alleged, might be incorporated in the pleadings, but stating that the road, when sold, must be sold as mortgaged, and that no condition could, in his judgment, be inserted in the decree for the benefit of the eastern extension or the mortgagees thereof.

"That the mortgagees took a mortgage of the road and of the franchises, at least to some extent, and took it, therefore, subject to such rights as the public might have in the operation and management of the road; that when it should be sold it would be sold charged with the same rights, of course, but that those rights could not be defined by the court now nor settled by a decree; that if the purchasers at the mortgage sale did not live up to and discharge those duties, whether to the public directly or the rest of the line, the matter would become a subject for the interposition of the proper courts of equity or law, as the case might be, at the time when any question of that nature might arise. On these points he stated his judgment to be very firm.

"He held, also, that no proof was admissible to show that the road, if well managed and under one management, would earn money enough to pay the interest or principal of its debts. That was a matter susceptible of no satisfactory proof, and was not pertinent to the merits of the case, and that if in future it could possibly be the case that the road would turn out to be prosperous, it could be no answer to the claim of its credi tors now.

"He therefore ordered that only so much of the allegations as related to the construction of the road to the east line of the State, and the mortgages thereon, and as related to the payment of the interest since the filing of the original cross-bill, and as related to the earlier filing or ask-

ing to file the amendment, only be allowed to go on file, and that all the other allegations be struck out after the proposed amended bill.

"This is the first case of a mortgage of a part of a rail-road that has ever come before the courts, though it is understood that there may be many such in this State."

"Mosaics," &c., are not "Precious Stones."

In the Supreme Court, Circuit, New-York City, before Justice Barnard, there was tried recently a suit of Ball, Black & Company *vs.* The Liverpool, New-York and Philadelphia Steamship Company. The plaintiffs sued to recover of the defendants a box of mosaics and malachites, which were delivered to defendants at Liverpool to be carried to New-York. The box appears to have been lost, when or where was not shown. The defendants claimed that they were not liable, under a clause in their bill of lading that they would not be liable for boxes containing jewelry, precious stones, paintings or metals, unless the contents were stated at the time of the shipment by the shippers and extra freight paid. It appears that in this case no declaration was made, and defendants were kept ignorant of the contents of the box, and did not take any special care thereof, as they would otherwise have done, having a person on board for that purpose. The plaintiffs contended that technically the words "jewelry" and "precious stones" do not include either malachites or Florentine mosaics, because they were not set and ready for immediate use.

The jury rendered a verdict for the plaintiffs for $907 50. This verdict, as far as it goes, establishes that unset mosaics and malachites are not precious stones or jewelry. The court granted an allowance to plaintiffs' counsel of five per cent. on the verdict, and allowed the defendants twenty days to make up a case for appeal to the General Term.

Playing Cards an Article of Merchandise.

The Cincinnati *Commercial*, of 23d ult., furnishes the following report of a suit in the Superior Court in that city:

S. Hart *vs.* Marienthal, Lehman & Company. This case was before Judge Hoadley, on a demurrer to the answer. The suit was on a promissory note. The defence admitted the execution of the note, but averred that the consideration consisted of playing-cards manufactured by the plaintiff, and made for the purpose of gambling, the sale whereof was illegal; and it was urged that, therefore, the note was given without legal consideration, and that the plaintiff ought not to recover a judgment.

The court would not say that this answer may not be good, if it were alleged as a fact that playing-cards could not be used for any legal purpose; but as it is known that they are used for legal and even a laudable purpose—the amusement of parties sitting down at a whist-table, or in other games in which there was no betting—the court was not at all disposed to say the answer was good. The demurrer must be sustained, and, unless a good defence is presented, the plaintiff will receive a judgment.

INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION OF WORKS OF INDUSTRY AND ART,

To be held at London in May, 1862.

The undersigned, having been appointed by the President of the United States, under the authority of Congress, commissioners to represent the interests of such American citizens as may desire to become exhibiters at the Exhibition of the Industry of all Nations, to be held in London, 1862, invite the co-operation of their fellow-citizens in carrying out the objects of their appointment.

The articles exhibited will be divided into the following classes:

SECTION I.

Class.

1. Mining, Quarrying, Metallurgy and Mineral Products.
2. Chemical Substances, and Products and Pharmaceutical Processes.
3. Substances used for Food, including Wines.
4. Animal and Vegetable Substances used in Manufactures.

SECTION II.

5. Railway Plans, including Locomotives, Engines and Carriages.
6. Carriages not connected with Rail or Tram Roads.
7. Manufacturing Machines and Tools.
8. Machinery in general.
9. Agricultural and Horticultural Machines and Implements.
10. Civil Engineering, Architectural and Building Contrivances.
11. Military Engineering, Armor and Accoutrements, Ordnance and Small Arms.
12. Naval Architecture, Ships' Tackle.
13. Philosophical Instruments and processes depending upon their use.
14. Photographic Apparatus and Photography.
15. Horological Instruments.
16. Musical Instruments.
17. Surgical Instruments and Appliances.

SECTION III.

18. Cotton.
19. Flax and Hemp.
20. Silk and Velvet.
21. Woollen and Worsted, including Mixed Fabrics generally.
22. Carpets.
23. Woven, Spun, Felted and Laid Fabrics, when shown as specimens of Printing or Dyeing.
24. Tapestry, Lace and Embroidery.
25. Skins, Fur, Feathers and Hair.
26. Leather, including Saddlery and Harness.
27. Articles of Clothing.
28. Paper, Stationery, Printing and Bookbinding.
29. Educational Works and Appliances.

30. Furniture and Upholstery, including Paper Hangings and Paper Mache.
31. Iron and General Hardware.
32. Steel and Cutlery.
33. Works in Precious Metals and their Imitations and Jewelry.
34. Glass.
35. Pottery.
36. Manufactures not included in previous classes.

SECTION IV.—MODERN ARTS.

37. Architecture.
38. Paintings in Oil and Water Colors, and Drawings.
39. Sculpture, Models, Die-Sinking and Intaglios.
40. Etchings and Engravings.

Prizes in the form of medals will be given in Sections I., II., III., but none in Section IV.

Persons desirous of contributing must have their articles entered without delay, and accepted, as all articles, if to be sent by public conveyance, must be ready for shipment at New-York by the 1st of January, 1862. A brief description of the articles will be required, with the space they will probably occupy. The articles to be exhibited in Sections I., II., III., must have been *produced since* 1850.

Articles intended for exhibition in Section IV. (Fine Arts) are referred by the commissioners to a special committee of their own number, consisting of the Hon. EDWARD EVERETT, of Boston, ROBERT B. MINTURN, Esq., of New-York, and ELI WHITNEY, Esq., of New-Haven, to whom artists will address their communications.

Applications for admission of articles for exhibition must state the section and class under which such articles would come, and the space or area (in square feet) required for placing or hanging the same.

The application for the entry and reception of articles may be made to the chairman of the Executive Committee, at Washington, or to either of the commissioners or agents named below, who will forward the necessary papers to be executed by the applicant. Particular attention is called to the requirements of her Majesty's Commissioners. The following is the requirement in relation to entries from foreign countries:

"Her Majesty's Commissioners will communicate *only through* the commission which the government of each foreign country may appoint: *and no article will be admitted from any foreign country without the sanction of such commission.*"

No article, therefore, from this country will be admitted by her Majesty's Commissioners to the exhibition, unless they shall be approved or authorized by this commission, nor will any agent, representative or commissioner, other than such as may be appointed or accredited by this commission, be recognised by them.

It is expected that a vessel will be furnished by the government for conveying to London and return, free of charges, the articles entered and approved for the exhibition.

The importance of our country being fully represented at this exhibition is most manifest. Since the exhibition of 1851, the improvements in this country in implements, machinery and manufactures have, it is believed, been important, and it is a duty we owe to ourselves, as well as

to the countries of the Old World, that these improvements should be exhibited for the benefit of all. We trust that in this respect we shall not be disappointed.

The undersigned make their appeal to their fellow-citizens in full confidence that our country will be properly represented in this great exhibition.

As soon as the entire regulations adopted by her Majesty's Commissioners are received, they will be published and furnished to all who may desire them.

Wm. H. Seward,	G. Dawson Coleman,
Caleb B. Smith,	B. P. Johnson,
Edward Everett,	R. Wallach,
Robt. B. Minturn,	W. W. Seaton,
Joseph Henry,	Eli Whitney,
J. H. Klippart,	J. C. G. Kennedy.
Jas. R. Partridge,	

Washington, October 15, 1861.

Names of commissioners and agents who may be addressed by persons desiring to exhibit:

Edward Everett, Boston,	*Commissioners.*
Eli Whitney, Esq., New-Haven, Conn.,	
R. B. Minturn, New-York,	
B. P. Johnson, Albany, New-York,	
J. H. Klippart, Columbus, Ohio,	
J. R. Partridge, Baltimore,	
G. Dawson Coleman, Pennsylvania,	
J. W. Hoyt, Madison, Wisconsin,	*Agents.*
David Davis, Bloomington, Illinois,	
J. W. Hearney, Ladoga, Indiana,	
Jas. H. Baker, St. Paul, Minnesota,	
R. Lowe, Iowa,	
Leland Stanford, San Francisco, Cal.,	
Jacob M. Howard, Detroit, Michigan,	

Names of Executive Committee, office in the Department of the Interior, Washington, (No. 10 Patent Office Building:)

H. P. Johnson, *Chairman.*	Prof. Joseph Henry.
J. R. Partridge, *Secretary.*	W. W. Seaton.
J. C. G. Kennedy.	

STEAM AND THE TELEGRAPH TO INDIA AND CHINA.

By PERRY MCD. COLLINS.

I. TELEGRAPHIC AND STEAM COMMUNICATION BETWEEN SAN FRANCISCO AND ASIA. II. STEAM TO JEDDO, HAKODADI, NAGASAKI, SHANGHAI, AMOY, HONG KONG, AUSTRALIA AND INDIA. III. TELEGRAPH UP THE COAST OF THE NORTHWEST TO OREGON, WASHINGTON, VANCOUVER (BRITISH) AND SITKA, (RUSSIAN,) TO THE ALUTIAN ISLANDS, OR *via* BEHRING'S STRAITS TO ASIA, AND THENCE, *via* THE AMOOR RIVER AND SIBERIA, OVERLAND TO MOSCOW. IV. LATERAL LINES, TO CONNECT WITH THE MAIN TRUNK LINE, TO JEDDO, PEKIN, SHANGHAI, HONG KONG AND AUSTRALIA; ALSO TO BOMBAY, BRITISH INDIA, PERSIA, THE CASPIAN SEA, CIRCASSIA AND GEORGIA, THUS UNITING THE WHOLE WORLD IN TELEGRAPHIC UNION.

CAPE RACE and San Francisco are united. London, Paris and St. Petersburg are now the same distance from San Francisco as Boston, Quebec or New-York. Space has been annihilated; the Atlantic and Pacific are no longer separated by oceans, deserts or mountains. One hundred and fifty thousand saplings and some five thousand miles of iron wire have done the work. We stand on both oceans at the same moment of time. The Pacific Telegraph Company has conquered time and space, and, in an incredibly short space of time, united the Atlantic with the Pacific.

It is only about a year since that this gigantic work was placed upon a working basis; during the winter of 1860–61 the work of procuring the poles at the most available points was commenced, but it was not until the 20th day of June, 1861, that the actual work of erecting the line was commenced; and on the 25th day of October, 1861, San Francisco spoke to New-York.

St. Joseph, in Missouri, is considered the starting-point of the Pacific Company—about 2,200 miles to San Fransisco. This is properly the Pacific Telegraph, other independent companies occupying the space thence, distant from New-York say about 1,500 miles.

The government, by act of Congress, is to pay the company $40,000 a year for ten years. The line has cost, probably, about $350,000; of this, as yet, we have no positive data, but the cost will be much less than the most favorable estimate, many of the apparent and imaginary difficulties vanishing as they were approached by the workmen.

To HIRAM SIBLEY, Esq., of Rochester, the President of the Western Union Telegraph Company, probably more than to any other one man, we owe this gigantic enterprise. He has pursued it with faith, works and money, until triumphant success has crowned his earnest efforts.

Here, then, we find ourselves actually in telegraphic union with San Francisco. Are we to stop there? That is the next question. In looking west from San Francisco (for that seems to be our destiny) our eye falls upon the shores of Asia and upon the thousand islands of the Indian Ocean, teeming with one-third the population of the whole globe, and opening up to our view all the dreams, visions, facts and fancies of all those who have, from the earliest times, contemplated unrestricted commerce with the populous and opulent Orient, India and the further Ind. Thus we find ourselves with the speed of lightning on the shores of the great Pacific Ocean, calmly awaiting a further and a greater stride, still westward; because in our march to the Pacific we have reversed all the

old laws and usages of time-honored commerce, and the Orient has now become the Occident.

A telegraph is already in course of construction, connecting California with Oregon, and most probably an independent line, without any connection with a proposed Asiatic line, will reach Washington and Vancouver. This may be considered, then, as the utmost limit of telegraphic enterprise, as far as North America is concerned, at present. In looking west from the shores of the Pacific towards Asia, we find an immense expanse of water intervening, which would seem to preclude the idea of any further progress in the realization of telegraphic union. But brute instinct, as well as the reasoning power of man and the more unerring square, compass and level, have all determined that it is easier and quite as *direct* to go around a mountain rather than over it. Upon this theory, granting the Pacific Ocean to be a mountain over which we cannot reach Asia, and the distance being too great to *tunnel* it with a submerged cable, we must resort to the only plan left, and go around it. Taking, then, Vancouver as the western *terminus* of telegraphic communication, which is in about 50° N. L., we would ascend the coast to Sitka, the capital of Russian America, in about 56° N. L. Thence, following up the coast to Mount St. Elias, in 60° N., we would proceed northwest to Behring's Straits, 65° N. 168° W. L.

At this point the strait is about forty miles wide; here, of course, submerged cables would unite the American to the Asiatic shore. In order to insure the union of the two worlds, at least four or five separate cables should be submerged, all of which would be united at the shore ends. This would not only tend to preserve the cables from over-work, but render the possibility of breakage or other accident to the continuity of the line quite beyond doubt.

Leaving Behring's Straits, the Asiatic coast would be followed as far as practicable to the Anadir River, whence the line would be extended across the head of the peninsula of Kamschatka to Penjinsk, at the northeastern extremity of the Sea of Okotsk, and thence around and along its shores to the mouth of the Amoor River, in 53° N., 140° E. L.

Here we stop, because the Russian government not only propose, but is in fact now engaged in constructing a line of telegraph which is to connect Europe with this point on the Pacific Ocean.

Pausing for a few moments at the Amoor, we find, in looking back along our track, that we have overcome the *mountain* of the Pacific by merely keeping the shore line or base of this mountain, and thus reached a point on the Asiatic shore where we can open communication overland to Europe.

We have ascended from 50° N. to 65°, and descended to 53°, having overcome, in the mean time, 95° of longitude and 27° of latitude.

We scarcely need remind our readers, that although in ascending so high north so much out of a direct line from our starting point, in order to reach the opposite coast of Asia, we have in all probability not increased the distance at all.

In doing this we have merely followed a great circle, while the known spheroidity of the earth will prove the hypothesis that it is quite as easy to go around as over it.

By looking at the map of the North Pacific it will be perceived that from a point on the Russian-American coast west of Sitka, at Alyaska, the Alutian Islands form, and separate the North Atlantic from Kamschatka or Behring Sea.

These islands are prolongated towards the coast of Kamschatka, and, with Copper and Behring Islands, form, as it were, a succession of steps between the two continents.

Again, from the southern point of Kamschatka, the Kurile Islands enclose the Sea of Okotsk, and, leading to Jesso or Sak-hah-lin, conduct, by short intervals of water, to the main coast of Asia.

Again, between Alyaska and Behring's Straits there are other islands, such as Nunivak, Gores, St. Lawrence, &c., which might be used as *posts* for submerged cables, in order to reach Asia. But in considering all these island routes, we must look to the practicability and expense of submerged cables, as compared with the almost exclusive land route, *via* the straits.

If we follow the Alutian and then the Kurile Islands we shall have probably two thousand miles of cable, in sections not to exceed probably three hundred miles; or, if after reaching Kamschatka, we should be compelled to cross to Amoor direct, on account of the inexpediency of touching Japanese soil, then we have the Sea of Okotsk to cross with a cable of 600 miles.

The other island route further to the north, though not requiring in the aggregate so much cable as the Alutian route, would, however, require sections of two, three and four hundred miles.

The distance over these various routes will fluctuate between four and five thousand miles.

As to cost, take the Behring's Straits route and call it 5,000 miles, at $300 a mile, and we have the cost at $1,500,000.

If we take the Alutian Island route, where the greatest length of cable will be required, and carry it by the Kurile Islands to the Amoor, the cost may be stated at from four to five millions of dollars; in fact, calculations have run up to £1,500,000 or $7,500,000. Thus we have the difference in calculations of cost and distances over the various proposed routes.

In round numbers we have the following distances:

New-York to St. Louis	1,100 miles.
St. Louis to San Francisco	2,600 "
San Francisco to Vancouver	700 "
Vancouver to Sitka	600 "
Sitka to Behring's Straits	1,200 "
Behring's Straits to Amoor	2,500 "

The distanee by the island routes would be nearly the same as by the longest land route.

From this great world-encircling telegraph, as it progresses east from Moscow, lateral lines will in time branch off to the Caspian, Circassia, Persia and India.

From Irkutsk, in Eastern Siberia, a line following the track of the tea caravans could reach Pekin, thence to Shanghai, Amoy and Hong Kong. From the Chinese coast, opposite Formosa, a line could, by way of that island, reach Manilla, and thence over islands and straits to Melbourne, Australia.

Tapping the main trunk line at the Amoor, we could reach Jeddo and connect all the Japanese islands, thus actually concentrating the whole world telegraphically upon this great overland route.

At Omsk, in Western Siberia, a branch line following the Russian and Chinese frontier would penetrate the route of the overland caravan commerce, between the Caspian provinces on the west and the Chinese prov-

inces on the east; this branch line might also be pushed still to the south and west, *via* Bokhara, Balk and Cabool, to connect with the lines throughout the whole of British India; but all these lateral lines are questions of time and necessity. The first work in order is to build the great trunk line, after which the construction of these lateral lines will become questions of State policy or commercial necessity.

But, enough of telegraphs; let us now turn our attention to steam.

San Francisco must, from her position, climate and productions, be, to the Pacific side of our continent, what New-York is to the Atlantic side. Already, telegraphically, San Francisco is, say seven days from London, the shortest time; under ordinary circumstances, ten days.

Westward the star of empire has taken its way; let us but carry out its destiny and cause it to shed its rays upon the shores of Asia.

A line of steamers from San Francisco to Shanghai should not only become the first study of our Pacific merchants and bankers, but New-York should, by every means in her power, hasten the consummation of such a noble project. Nay, there is not within the legitimate scope of governmental protection and patronage a more important or useful field.

With a line of swift steamers from San Francisco, Shanghai can be brought to within twenty days of New-York, and London in twenty-six days. Over this line the current news, the mails, the exchanges and the bullion would soon inevitably find their way, as well as the lighter and most costly of Chinese, Japanese, and much of the Indian commerce, seek a market or eastern transportation.

San Francisco is in 38°, Shanghai in 32° N. L.; the distance is about 5,500 miles. From New-York to Liverpool it is 3,000 miles; consequently, with steamers such as the VANDERBILT, the ADRIATIC and the BALTIC, Shanghai would be but sixteen and a half days distant from San Francisco.

Counting seventeen days from Shanghai to San Francisco, one day's telegraph to Cape Race, and six days thence by steam and telegraph to London, we find that China is only twenty-four days distant from the Bank of England.

This schedule gives us an important advantage over the western mails and steamers leaving Shanghai for Europe *via* the Peninsular and Oriental Company's line.

Considering, as I do, that by no combination of circumstances the centre of commerce and power on our side of the Pacific can ever be removed from San Francisco, I shall consider that as the point from which our contact with Asia shall concentrate.

There seems to be, as yet, no limit to the discoveries of the more precious metals. The field is no longer limited to the foot-hills and western slope of the Sierra Nevada, but has crossed equally to the eastern slope; while Oregon, Washington and British Columbia have been added.

The silver deposits of our young and thriving Nevada, now in rapid course of development, must, within a very few years, give to San Francisco the control of supply for India and China of that metal.

It has been estimated by parties engaged in silver mining in Nevada, that there is now sufficient machinery on located mines in the territory to produce, when put in working order, fifty millions of dollars the first year.

Again, the cinnabar of California assures the working of the silver mines, for this metal is found in such abundance that the supply of quicksilver may be considered adequate to all demands.

Amid all this surfeit of gold, silver, cinnabar and copper of California and adjacent territories, we find yet other elements of prosperity, safety and wealth.

While the gold-fields are so rich and extensive, the wheat fields are adequate to all demands; and while the miners in the mountains, ravines and placers are settling the balances of the world with their yellow dust, the no less industrious cultivators of the soil are distributing to distant nations of the earth their golden harvest.

Not content with regulating and sustaining the commerce of the world by supplying the basis upon which it rests, as well as literally scattering her bread upon the waters, California, with her vine-clad hills and valleys, must soon make herself not only independent of, but will enter the markets of the world with her wines and brandies.

Thus, amid all these elements of wealth, prosperity and luxury, it is hardly necessary to attempt to foreshadow what position San Francisco must surely hold on the shores of the Pacific, nor attempt to picture her steady and irresistible march to power and wealth.

But these white-winged messengers, that so much delighted and astonished our forefathers, which walked the waters like things of life, and dared the elements to strife, and all that, no longer rule the wave.

In our degenerate times we most delight to see a black but graceful combination of iron and wood, some three to six hundred feet long, belching forth from her great smoke-stack volumes of the densest and blackest smoke, her great paddles dashing the waves to foam, and her sharp prow cutting the ocean asunder, while her track glides away in a sea of light.

It is something like this that rules the ocean now; without it we are fifty years behind the times.

San Francisco must have steam to China, and it is time not only that our merchants, but our government took the question under serious and determined consideration.

Consider at this time the threatening attitude of our foreign relations, the immense extent of our Pacific coast, the absolute necessity, in case of war, for a defensive steam marine, and we should need no further argument to make us act promptly and efficiently.

It is to be hoped that Congress is now, or soon may be, pretty thoroughly weeded of political hucksters, and that instead of legislating for self, that great and [should be] noble body of men will be found legislating for their country.

What an insignificant sum one or two or three millions of dollars a year would be in order to give us the control of the Chinese commerce, while at the same time we would be building up a steam fleet upon the Pacific which would render us secure in case of war.

It is astonishing how easy it is to do a great thing if we only have a very little encouragement; this has been proved very recently, in the construction of the Pacific Telegraph, which everybody has been talking of for the last ten years, yet no one man would, or set of men could be found, either in or out of the United States, to undertake its construction without the help of government.

This miserable pittance of forty thousand dollars a year has accomplished one of the wonders of the age; a sum, I have no doubt, the government will be enabled to save in actual expenditure and economy more than a dozen times this present year.

Again, the government is giving a million a year to the overland mail. Now, as a matter of revenue, I have no doubt it is a bad speculation, or rather investment; but has not the establishment of the overland mail hastened and rendered more practicable the erection of the telegraph? and though the government makes very bad bargains in some cases, yet facilities are cheapened in others. Thus the million given to the overland mail induced telegraphists to undertake their great work for forty thousand dollars, and though the discrepancy, as far as resulting actual benefit is concerned, is so enormous, that one is constrained to fancy that Congress, in its idea of compensation or encouragement, is not always ruled very sagely, yet we rest content on general results. However, we have now the overland mail and the telegraph; these are of the past—now let us look to the future.

Yet we must not forget how easy and rapidly these really great and difficult works were accomplished with only a very little, a mere mite, of that lubricating and efficient government oil—money.

Now, since Congress has set the ball in motion, and rolled both post-coach and telegraph over the grand deserts and mountains of North America, from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, let our wise men, political economists, statesmen, philosophers and philanthropists just keep the ball in motion, while they have their hands in, and send the fleet and stately steamer across the gentle Pacific, and, consequently, finish the *last link* in *compassing* the *round earth* with *steam and electricity.*

The space from San Francisco to Shanghai is the last gap that remains to be filled in this world-encircling girdle.

Congress should, within twenty days from the first Monday in December next, pass a bill offering at least one million of dollars to any individual or association who would carry the United States mails to China and Japan, not less than twice a month.

It is hardly necessary to present an estimate of the number of steamers, their dimensions, speed or cost which should undertake this service. The moment the question is presented to Congress, a dozen competitors for the honor and emoluments would be ready with every detail and specification.

Let it not be said that this is not the proper time to present the subject to Congress, because we are engaged in a war for our national existence, that we are taxing the whole energies and calling upon the whole resources of the nation in a time of great peril, and that the expenditures to sustain the government will reach five hundred millions a year, the bulk of which must be borrowed.

No! let us rather say that the United States still exists; we know our duty and our future; our national flag still floats on every sea, and shall continue to float; and, as an evidence of our faith and determination, we mean it shall float triumphantly on the Pacific as well as on the Atlantic.

Our steam line from San Francisco to Shanghai will strengthen and consolidate that power so necessary to a commercial nation, and evidence to the world that, as a great power, we surrender nothing to the circumstances of the hour, but go steadily, hopefully and bravely forth in the path of progress, duty and power.

If Congress will do this we will, amid one of the most gigantic wars that has ever reddened the page of history, prove to the world our vitality as well as our determination to exist.

While there are so many thousands actively engaged in the strife and hazards of war, there are yet many more thousands equally active and zealous in all the arts of peace, and this enterprise would be most readily and quickly undertaken, and carried out successfully.

Now is the time; our commerce wants new avenues—extension, expansion. Thousands of our merchants and ship-owners have been driven from old, time-honored, lucrative and beaten paths. Let the government, while they are sustaining it with their millions upon millions of money, open up this new field of commercial enterprise, and pour some of the wealth of India into their coffers.

Able navigators should be left to choose the route to reach Shanghai; whether they reach it by the northern or southern route, it matters not to the government.

If experimental voyages should prove that the outward route should be made direct to Shanghai, taking advantage of the northeast trade winds, let it be so, returning up through the sea of Japan, touching at such ports as necessary.

At Hakodadi the commerce and mails for the Amoor and other Russian-Asiatic possessions would be distributed, while our whaling fleet in the North Pacific would make this point a rendezvous for advices from home.

Our steamers, thus making a circuit from San Francisco to Shanghai, thence up the western coast of Japan, and out through the Straits of Sangar on their return, would consolidate and accommodate American commerce, and assure to it all the necessary facilities for rapid and regular communication, strengthen us in the east, and divide the commercial empire of India with Great Britain.

Table of distances from San Francisco to important ports on the Pacific.

To the Amoor,	4,200 miles.
Hakodadi,	3,500 "
Petropavlosky,	3,000 "
Sandwich Islands,	2,200 "
Melbourne,	7,000 "
Calcutta,	9,500 "
Canton,	6,550 "
Shanghai,	5,500 "

Sailing vessels have made the voyage from Shanghai to San Francisco in about thirty days; from the Amoor in thirty; from Petropavlosky in seventeen days, and from Hakodadi in twenty-two days. These are the short and favorable voyages; generally, a large per cent. in time must be added to these voyages.

The Pacific Ocean being so much more tranquil than the Atlantic, steamers would make much greater speed; and again, there would be no winter coasts to be approached, with northeasters, snow-storms or icebergs. Consequently, the voyages across the Pacific would be attended with much less risk, greater speed and more regularity than across the Atlantic.

Again, voyagers bound from China for Europe would find it decidedly safer and more pleasant to reach Europe, *via* San Francisco and New-York, rather than by Calcutta, Bombay and the Red Sea.

Over the Indian route the heat is intense, the seas liable to sudden

tempests, while the construction, size and accommodation of the English steamers compare very unfavorably with ours on the California side.

If our route from Shanghai to San Francisco should be to the north, *via* the Straits of Sangar, and consequently on a great circle, we would make quicker time and avoid all the scorching and broiling that passengers so much complain of on the Indian overland line *via* the Red Sea.

The time from Shanghai to London being about sixty days by the Peninsular and Oriental Overland Company's conveyance for mails and passengers, we claim that the *Occidental* California route would attract and attach to it a fair, if not a marked number of passengers, as well as the preponderance of mails.

Telegraphically our San Francisco route defies the competition of the Peninsular and Oriental Company, because, under the most favorable circumstances of that company's despatches, we can reach London to the east, *via* San Francisco and Cape Race, in about twenty-five days; whereas it takes about forty-five days from Hong Kong, and consequently about fifty days from Shanghai, for telegraphic despatches to reach London over the Indian overland route.

This time may be reduced, to be sure, if the efforts to *relay or reconstruct* the Mediterranean and Red Sea cables should be permanently successful. But speculation is unnecessary when we have an aerial line that defies the elements, is visible and palpable, and which can only, under the most unfavorable circumstances, be interrupted but a few days at any one time.

Give us, then, our swift, airy, well-ventilated and capacious American floating, sea-going, Pacific palaces, and, my word on it, we will not only carry our own mails and passengers, but will tap the Peninsular and Oriental line, and divert a large proportion of oriental voyagers and mails to our shores, where comfort, health and luxury will be increased a hundred fold.

Nor will we be confined to passengers alone. These steamers will carry the specie, the quicksilver, and the higher descriptions of merchandise to China, besides many articles of luxury, fruits, wines, flour, butter, preserved fruits, meats, etc., etc., etc.

In return we will receive not only what is required for the consumption of the Pacific coast of Chinese and Japanese produce and articles of luxury, but we may expect the finer teas, silks, etc., etc., to find their way to New-York and even Europe, *via* San Francisco and Panama.

In fact, this steam line once established, we would, like in the case of the Pacific telegraph, be absolutely surprised not only why we had not carried it out before, and the ease with which it was done, but we would be astounded at the new avenues of commerce it would open to us, and the facility and ease with which we acquired so glorious a result.

Therefore, under the various phases of the completion of the *last link* in the *world-encircling* steam and telegraph lines over and around the Pacific, in order to open up to us the vast commerce of Asia, may we not very justly begin to look forward to the day when the transfer of power must be from the far off seat of power now enthroned in London, to a more genial, approachable and adjacent seat on the shores of the Pacific itself, viz., San Francisco?

It is a thought that is not vague or vagrant; we have only to grapple with manly souls and willing works, and even before the work shall itself be accomplished, the empire of London over Chinese commerce will be found gradually migrating towards the golden and silver shores of the Pacific.

EAST INDIA AND CHINA MAILS.

The following table illustrates the ordinary time consumed in the transmission of passengers and mails to or from London and the places named, by the overland route. By adding ten days to these, we may estimate the ordinary time to or from New-York. We add, also, the ordinary fare by sailing vessels, from London and New-York to some of the places named:

From London or Liverpool	*Ordinary time by mail from London.*	By Sailing Vessels.	
		From London.	*From New-York.*
To Japan.—Yedo,	....	.. .. ..	....
Kanagawa,	78 to 80 days.	.. .. ..	....
Nagasaki,	65 to 67 "	.. £50 ..	$250 to $300
China.—Peking,	64 to 72 "	.. .. ..	....
Tien-tsin,	63 to 68 "	.. .. ..	....
Hankow,	62 to 72 "	.. .. ..	....
Shanghai,	54 to 60 "	.. £50 ..	$250 to $300
Foo-chow-Foo,	55 to 60 "	.. .. ..	....
Amoy,	52 to 58 "	.. .. ..	....
Swatow,	51 to 53 "	.. £50 ..	$250 to $300
Hong Kong,	47 to 49 "	.. .. ..	....
Canton,	49 to 51 "	.. .. ..	....
Macao,	....	.. .. ..	....
Phillipines.—Manila,	53 to 57 "	.. £50 ..	$250 to $300
Cochin-China.—Touron,	....	.. .. ..	....
Saigon,	44 to 49 "	.. .. ..	....
Siam.—Bankok,	54 to 60 "	.. .. ..	....
Borneo.—Labuan,	45 to 60 "	.. .. ..	....
Sarawak,	53 to 60 "	.. .. ..	....
Java.—Batavia,	43 to 47 "	.. .. ..	....
Malacca Straits.—Singapore,	37 to 41 "	.. £40 ..	$225 to $250
Penang,	35 to 39 "	.. .. ..	....

FUNDAMENTAL LAWS OF MEXICO.

Expenses of the Government of Mexico.—A decree, fixing the disbursements of the government, has been published, dated the 16th August, 1861. The annual expenses of the different departments are thus fixed:

Foreign relations,	$ 210,340 00
Interior,	1,191,830 00
Justice,	537,050 00
Fomento,	69,179 00
Finance,	1,573,624 00
War,	4,745,395 04
Total expenses,	$8,327,418 04

To cover this disbursement the Minister of Finance reports the following resources:

Customs duties,	$ 5,500,000
Contributions,	400,000
Sealed paper,	250,000
Custom-house of the district,	1,200,000
Total receipts,	$ 7,350,000

From this statement it will be seen that the annual disbursements will exceed the annual receipts of the government by $977,418 04. To cover this deficit a contingent is imposed upon the revenues of States and territories, amounting to twenty per cent.

FUNDAMENTAL LAWS OF MEXICO.

We republish, from the "*Mexcan*," published at the city of Mexico, the following table, giving the many laws, plans, constitutions, &c., which have formed the pivots upon which the many governments of independent Mexico have turned:

Names of laws.	*When enacted.*	*Where proclaimed.*	*Authors of the laws.*
Plan of Iguala,	24th February, 1821,	Iguala, Mexico,	Augustin de Iturbide.
Acta de Independencia,	28th September, 1821,	Mexico,	The Junta Gubernativa.
Declaration of the Empire,	19th May, 1822,	"	The Army and Congress.
Bases Organicas de la Junta Instituyente,	2d November, 1822,	"	The Junta Instituyente.
Act of Santa Anna, proclaiming the Republic,	6th December, 1822,	City of Mexico,	Santa Anna and Guadalupe Victoria.
Plan of Casa Mata,	1st February, 1823,	Near Vera Cruz,	The Imperial Army, headed by Gen. Echavarri.
Acta Constitutiva de la Federacion,	31st January, 1824,	Mexico,	Constitutional Congress of 1824.
Constitucion Federal of the United Mexican States,	4th October, 1824,	"	Federal Congress.
Ley Constitucional,	15th December, 1835,	"	The Congress.
Leyes Constitucionales del Congreso,	29th December, 1836,	"	National Congress.
Bases de Tacubaya,	28th September, 1841,	Tacubaya,	Santa Anna.
Plan de Huexotzinco,	11th December, 1842,	Huexotzinco, Puebla,	Several citizens of Huexotzinco.
Bases de Organizacion Politica,	12th June, 1843,	Mexico,	The Junta de Notables.
Plan de San Luis,	14th December, 1845,	San Luis Potosi,	D. Mariano Paredes.
Plan de Guadalajara,	20th May, 1846,	Guadalajara,	The garrison of Guadalajara.
Plan de la Ciudadela,	4th August, 1846,	Citadel of Mexico,	Gen. Mariano Salas.
Acta de Reformas á la Constitucion Federal,	18th May, 1847,	Mexico,	Congress assembled by Gen. Salas.
Plan de Jalisco,	20th October, 1852,	Guadalajara,	The garrison of Guadalajara.
Convenios de Arroyozarco,	4th February, 1853,	Arroyozarco, Queretaro,	Gen. Uraga and Col. Robles.
Bases para la Administracion de la Republica,	22d April, 1853,	Mexico,	Santa Anna.
Plan de Ayutla,	1st March, 1854,	Ayutla, Guerrero,	Col. Florencio Villareal.
Plan de Ayutla Reformado in Acapulco,	11th March, 1854,	Acapulco, Guerrero,	Ignacio Comonfort.
Estatuto Organico,	15th May, 1856,	Mexico,	" "
Constitucion de la Republica Mejicana,	5th February, 1857,	"	Congress created by the Plan of Ayutla.
Plan de Tacubaya,	17th December, 1857,	Tacubaya,	Gen. Zuloaga.
Plan de Tacubaya á Reformado in la Ciudadela,	11th January, 1858,	Citadel of Mexico,	Gen. Parra, backed by the clergy.
Laws of Reform,	1859,	Vera Cruz,	Constitutional President Juarez and Cabinet.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

I. Trades and Employments in France. II. Marriages, Births and Deaths in France. III. West Indies and Mauritius. IV. Victoria. V. Effects of Climate on Northern and Southern Troops. VI. The French and the English.

TRADES AND EMPLOYMENTS IN FRANCE.

An interesting document has lately been published in Paris, giving the number of the individuals in France at the date of the last census (1856) who were engaged directly or indirectly in various professions and trades, from which they derived their support. The returns include not only adults, but also children, and are thus classed:

Agriculture,.....	19,034,071	Clergy of all persuasions,....	142,705
Manufactures,.....	10,690,961	Persons without any trade or profession,.....	3,241,457
Commerce,.....	1,652,331		
Professions,.....	1,462,144		

A comparison between the population returns of 1851 and 1856 shows a sensible diminution in the number of persons engaged in agricultural labor, and an increase in the class following manufacturing pursuits. Here are the figures:

	1851.		1856.
Agriculture,.....	21,992,874	....	19,034,071
Manufactures,.....	9,233,895	....	12,202,391
Professions,.....	3,483,538	....	3,262,282
Without profession or trade,.....	1,022,063	....	1,480,925
	35,732,370	....	36,009,669

During the preceding year (1854) the receipts from the octroi in Paris were fifty-four millions of francs, being an increase of twenty-one millions of francs in ten years; and the total receipts of the metropolis, in the same year, amounted to 110,306,124 francs, while the expenditures, during the same period, was 97,720,544 francs.

STATISTICS OF FRANCE.

In the French empire, the annual number of male births is a sixth greater than the births of females; but the annual deaths of males surpass slightly the deaths of the opposite sex, there being 65 deaths of females to 66 males. From 1817 to 1853 the population increased steadily every year; but in 1854 and 1855 it diminished considerably. The average annual increase, from 1817 to 1857, was 159,018 inhabitants; or the 310th part of the average population, calculated at 33,410,000, up to 1857. If the same ratio should continue in the future, the population will increase one-tenth in twenty years, two-tenths in thirty-eight years, three-tenths in fifty-five years, and will not double itself before the lapse of 146 years. There is one birth to 34,066 inhabitants, and 0.84 deaths —that is to say, 100 births to 84 deaths. There is one death and 1.20 births to 41,050 inhabitants, or 100 deaths to 120 births.

Marriages.—There is one marriage to 127 inhabitants, and 3.41 legitimate births, or 341 legitimate births to 100 marriages. To every 1,074 inhabitants there are, annually, 29 births, 25 deaths and 9 marriages.

Manufacturing Districts.—By a comparison between the population and the superfices of each department of France, it is found that the most productive department is the most densely populated, excepting, of course, the department of the Seine, in which Paris is located. Thus, the department of the Lower Alps, which has a territory larger than the department of the north, has a population eight or nine times inferior to the latter. The department of the Seine is the smallest and the most densely populated. Its territory is thirteen times smaller than the Lower Alps, and its population four times greater.

Paris.—The specific population of the department of the Seine (that is to say, the proportion of inhabitants to each square yard of territory) is fifty-three times that of all the rest of France. The department of Seine counts 3,632.25 inhabitants to the square kilometre, (five-eighths of a mile,) and the department of the Lower Alps counts only 21.52. Of 1,286 children supposed, for the sake of the calculation, to be born at the same moment, a sixth dies in the first year after birth; a fifth fails to reach the age of two years; a fourth, the age of four years; and a third does not attain the age of fourteen. One-half of the remainder reaches forty-two years; a third, sixty-two years; a fourth, sixty-nine years; a fifth, seventy-two years, and a sixth, seventy-five years. Or, in other terms, of 1,286 children, supposed to be born at the same moment, 215 die during the first year after birth, and 65 only during the second year. At the age of ten, the survivors number 879, or a loss of 407 in ten years. At twenty years of age there are 814 survivors; at thirty, there remain 734; at fifty, 581; at seventy, 310; at ninety, 11; and at ninety-five years, one is still living. We are inclined to deduce from these figures that the chances of longevity in France are vastly superior to those of our own country. The climate is no better, but the people are much more careful of their health than we are of ours.

WEST-INDIES AND MAURITIUS.

A return has been made of the number of immigrants and liberated Africans introduced into these colonies. Last year the West Indies received an addition of 12,541 to their population, 8,503 of them being from India, of whom 2,169 went to Trinidad and 5,076 to British Guiana. To this last colony, also, 1,242 immigrants were brought from China. From Mauritius the returns are but for the first three-quarters of the year; 9,955 immigrants had arrived from India. All that Jamaica had received in 1860 were 598 from India and 47 from St. Helena.

VICTORIA.

It appears from the report of the immigration agent for the year 1859 that the total immigration into Victoria in that year amounted to 27,432, viz.: 12,330 from the United Kingdom, 5,340 from New South Wales, 3,617 from Southern and Western Australia, 3,166 from Tasmania, 411 from New-Zealand and South Seas, and 2,463 from foreign ports. In the same year, 19,418 took their departures from this colony, viz.: 5,922 to

the United Kingdon, 4,205 to New South Wales, 1,465 to South and Western Australia, 2,588 to Tasmania, 952 to New-Zealand and South Seas, and 4,286 to foreign ports. The increase of population by unassisted emigration amounted to 8,014. If to this number be added 3,151 immigrants by government ships despatched by the emigration commissioners, the entire increase would be 11,165 souls. During 1859, 30 vessels arrived with 644 Chinese immigrants, and 37 left, having on board no fewer than 3,275 souls. The gross amount of immigration into Victoria during the first two months of 1860 is stated to have been 5,769 souls, and the departures 3,461, giving a balance in favor of the colony of 2,308 souls. According to a return furnished from the Registrar-General's office at Melbourne, it would appear that on the 30th of September, 1860, the population of Victoria was 544,677—341,628 being males and 203,049 females.

NORTHERN AND SOUTHERN TROOPS.

Comparing the northern soldier with the southern, we believe the former will withstand the effects of the climate for a short campaign of a year or more better than the latter, and though the popular belief is divergent to this view, the statistics of our war with Mexico fully sustain it, and the published opinion of no less an authority than Dr. Nott, of Mobile, in the *Southern Journal of Medicine and Pharmacy* for January, 1847, confirms it.

On April 8th, 1848, the Secretary of War made a report to the United States Senate, of the losses of the volunteer forces employed in Mexico. From this it appears that seven northern States—Massachusetts, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois—furnished, in the course of that war, 22,573 men. Of this force, the total loss from disease was 2,931 men—less than one-eighth of the whole. Nine slave States—Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Louisiana, Mississippi, Tennessee and Kentucky—furnished 22,899 men. The loss from this force by disease, and death caused by disease, was 4,315, or more than one-fifth—a very considerable difference in favor of northern troops.

THE FRENCH AND THE ENGLISH.

The public documents of 1859 show that the mortality in that year, in Great Britain, was at the rate of 2.196 per cent.; in France, 2.670, but this latter is considerably above the average of that empire, owing to the prevalence, at that time, of dysentery, diptheria and some other epidemics. The marriage rate in Great Britain was 1.650 per cent.; in France, 1.638. The birth rate in Great Britain was 3.482; in France, 2.778. Thus the marriage rate and the birth rate being lower in France than in Great Britain, and the death rate higher, the natural increase of population is less in France than in Great Britain. The births in France, in 1859, were 1,011,787; there is no record of the births in Ireland, but it is estimated that the births in the United Kingdom amounted to nearly the same number; but the deaths in France were 972,556, while the deaths in the United Kingdom were estimated at not exceeding 651,171—fewer deaths by 300,000, with about an equal number of births.—*British Medical Journal.*

JOURNAL OF NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

I. Launch of a Cunard Steamer. II. The Cunard Steam Fleet. III. Ventilation of Ships. IV. New Light-Houses—1. Navesink Lights—2. Gulf of Finland—3. Mediterranean—4. Turkey—5. Sea of Marmora—6. England—7. Gulf of Bothnia. V. Deviation of the Compass.

LAUNCH OF A CUNARD STEAMER.

On the 8th October, Messrs. Napier & Sons launched from their building yard, at Govan, the finest screw steamer which the Clyde has yet produced. The vessel which, as a screw, has carried off the palm, is named the China, and is intended as a complement to those fine vessels which are already on the Cunard line. The launch was most successfully completed, notwithstanding the disagreeable character of the weather. The youthful daughter of Mr. Campbell, of Blythswood, performed the interesting ceremony of naming the vessel. The China is a ship of 2,600 tons burthen. She is to be fitted with oscillating engines of 550 nominal horse-power, and patent surface-condensers in addition to the ordinary condensers. The Cunard Company have always exhibited the greatest caution, combined with the highest enterprise, in constructing the vessels intended for their line; and in the present case we have an instance of a vessel, fitted up with all the most recent improvements, and yet, to provide for the smallest chance of an accident, having on board not only the condensers on the new system, which has generally been adopted to the discardment of the old plan, but those also founded on the former system. This is only an additional proof to the many which have already been given of the great care and attention which the Cunard Company have always paid to the building of their famous line of steamers. The following are the dimensions of the China: Length of keel and forerake, 322 feet; breadth, (moulded,) 40 feet; depth, (moulded,) 29 feet; and extreme length, 346 feet.—*Glasgow Herald, Oct.*, 1861.

THE CUNARD STEAM FLEET.

The Sidon, a fine screw steamer, of about 1,800 tons, (builders' measurement,) and 300 horse-power, arrived recently in the Mersey, from the Clyde, after a rapid passage. The Sidon was built by Messrs. William Denny & Brothers, of Dumbarton, and her engines, which are of the oscillating kind, were constructed by Messrs. Tulloch & Denny, of the same town. She belongs to the Mediterranean fleet of the Cunard Company, and will sail for the Italian ports in a few days.

VENTILATION OF SHIPS.

Messrs. Silver & More have patented a new method for ventilating the between decks of ships. Having made sundry experiments, they

discovered that all gases descend. To carry them upwards, therefore, a downward and upward draught was necessary. This they have managed by opening trap-valves in all the decks below the spar deck. These apertures are protected by the insertion of a round iron grating. The valves under the decks spread the air or gases, and help in the down-draught, and they are made self-acting, so as to close in the event of water filling the compartments of the hold, and thus stop its passage above the lower deck. To carry off the gases and all foul air from the hold, pipes are let down through all the decks to within a few feet below the lower deck. The upper parts of these pipes are conically shaped, to create a current of air. The gases are carried up, naturally, by this up-draught, and pass away above the bulwarks. By this simple contrivance the patentees maintain that they can keep the between decks free from impure air and foul smells, for, as the pure air passes down the hatchways it carries with it the gases to the hold, and thence by the up-pipes to the spar-deck. The smell from bilge-water and offensive cargo would be considerably lessened by this mode of ventilation. The principle, we understand, is about to be adopted in France, in theatres and hospitals, and is to be tried in ships.—*Mitchell's Steam Shipping Journal.*

NEW LIGHT-HOUSES.

Navesink Lights, marking the approaches to the harbor of New-York.—The Light-House Board at Washington gives notice that two new light-house towers are being erected at Navesink, N. J., a few feet in the rear of the two light-house towers from which the existing lights are now exhibited. On or about the 1st day of May, 1862, of which due notice will be given in advance, two first order fixed lights will be exhibited from the new towers, and the old towers will be removed. The illuminating apparatus will be catadioptric of the first order, according to the system of FRESNEL. The towers are built of reddish gray granite; are each 53 feet 6 inches in height from the base to the lantern deck, having a focal plane above the mean level of the sea of 258 feet. Both lights will have exactly the same elevation. The new towers stand 228 feet apart from centre to centre of the lanterns, and preserve the bearings of the old ones from each other.

The intelligent seaman will not fail to perceive that, in approaching the entrance to the bay of New-York from the southward, after passing the Capes of the Delaware, he may see (if within their range) the first order fixed light at Absecom, or the first order revolving or flashing flight, (*visible once in every ten seconds,*) at Barnegat, on the New-Jersey coast, and then the two first order fixed lights at Navesink; or, if approaching from the eastward, after passing Montauk first order light, (*fixed, varied by flashes once in every two minutes,*) he may see the first order fixed light at Great West (Shinnecock) Bay, or the first order revolving light (*once every minute*) at Fire Island, from which last light he can shape his course to make the two fixed lights at Navesink.

The Navesink lights are 38½ nautical miles to the northward of the Barnegat Light, and 38 nautical miles to the westward of Fire Island Light. The Barnegat and Navesink lights will be seen at the same time in clear weather in sixteen fathoms water, and at thirteen nautical miles distance

from the New-Jersey beach. The Fire Island and Navesink lights will be seen at the same time in clear weather in sixteen fathoms water, and at seventeen nautical miles distance from the Long Island beach. The existing lights at Navesink have a mean range of revolving light, twenty-two nautical miles; fixed lights, twenty nautical miles. The two first order fixed lights to be exhibited from the new towers, on or about the 1st of May, 1862, will have a range (under ordinary states of the atmosphere, from the deck of a vessel fifteen feet above the water) of 25½ nautical miles, and both will be made at the same time, and both will be seen at the same time when within their range. A new notice will be issued during the ensuing winter, setting forth the precise night on which the old lights will be discontinued and the new fixed lights exhibited.

Island of Haughland, Gulf of Finland.—Change of Light.—The Hydrographical Department of the Minister of Marine of Russia has given notice that the upper light upon the Island of Haughland—that is, the upper one upon the northern hill of that island—in latitude 60° 05′ 44″ north, longitude 26° 58′ 24″ east of Greenwich, will be lighted, after the repairs shall have been completed, with a FRESNEL apparatus of the first order, showing a white light. This light is situated 383½ feet above mean sea level, and should be seen in clear weather at a distance of 25 to 28 nautical miles.

Mediterranean Sea.—Bosphorus.—The Turkish government has given notice, that on the 16th day of August, 1861, the following lights were exhibited from light-houses recently erected in the Bosphorus:

Fixed Green Lights.—Pilon de Sultan-Serail.—Two fixed green lights, placed vertically, have been established between the villages of Defterdar and Kourou Tcheshmeh, on the coast of Europe, in front of the Sultan's Palace. The lights are about sixty yards from the quay, at an elevation of thirty-nine feet above the sea, and visible at four miles.

Fixed Red Lights on Kandili Point.—Also, two fixed red lights, placed vertically, on Kandili Point, on the coast of Asia. The lights are exhibited above the first row of houses bordering the quay, at an elevation of 112 feet above the sea, and visible at a distance of four miles.

Fixed Green Lights at Roumili Hissar.—Also, two fixed green lights, placed vertically, on the point of Roumili Hissar, on the coast of Europe. The lights are exhibited under the wall of the fortress, at the distance of 110 yards from the guard-house, at the height of forty-six feet above the sea, and visible at a distance of four miles.

Fixed Red Lights at Khanlijeh Point.—Also, two fixed red lights, placed vertically, on Khanlijeh Point, on the coast of Asia. The lights are exhibited 110 yards from the shore, above the first row of houses which border the quay, at an elevation of ninety-two feet above the sea, and visible at four miles.

Fixed Green Lights at Yeni-Keui.—Also, three fixed green lights, in the form of a triangle, shown from a light-vessel moored on the edge of the bank off the village of Yeni-Keui, on the coast of Europe. The lights are elevated forty-six feet above the sea, and visible at four miles.

Fixed Green Lights at Therapia.—Also, two fixed green lights, placed vertically, close to the battery of Kefali Keui, at about one mile N. W.

by W. of Therapia, on the coast of Europe. The lights are forty-six feet above the sea, and visible at four miles.

Fixed Red Lights on Umur Banks.—Also, three fixed red lights, in the form of a triangle, exhibited from a light-vessel, moored on the western edge of the Umur Banks, on the coast of Asia. The lights are elevated forty-six feet above the sea, and visible at four miles.

Fixed Red Lights at Jeron Point.—Also, two fixed red lights, placed vertically, are exhibited from Jeron Point, the outermost point of the low fort of Kavak, on the coast of Asia, at the height of forty-six feet above the sea, and visible at a distance of four miles.

Mediterranean Sea.—The Turkish government has given notice, that on the 16th day of August, 1861, the following lights were exhibited from light-houses recently erected in the Archipelago and Dardanelles:

Archipelago.—Revolving Light on Sigri Island, Mityleni.—A *revolving* white light, eclipsed every *thirty seconds*, has been established on Sigri island, at the west end of the island of Mityleni, at a height of 180 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen in clear weather at a distance of 24 miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses, of the first order. The position of the light-house is given in lat. 31° 13′ N., long. 25° 51′ 15″ east of Greenwich.

Fixed Light on Ponente Point, Tenedos.—Also, a *fixed* white light has been established on Ponente Point, the low western point of the island of Tenedos, at a height of 59 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen in clear weather at the distance of fourteen miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses, of the third order. The light-house is in lat. 39° 50′ north, long 25° 58′ 45″ east of Greenwich.

Fixed and Flashing Light on Isle Gadaro.—Also, a *fixed* and *flashing* light, a *red* flash recurring every *two minutes*, is shown from a light-house on Isle Gadaro, one mile eastward of the northeast end of Tenedos. The light is 59 feet above the mean level of the sea, and visible at a distance of twelve miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses, of the fourth order. The position of the light-house is in lat. 39° 50′ north, long. 26° 6′ 15″ east of Greenwich.

Dardanelles.—Green Lights at Seddul-Bahr.—Also, two *green* lights, placed vertically, are exhibited from the south point of the fortress at Seddul-Bahr, about one mile eastward of Cape Helles, on the coast of Europe. The lights are 52 feet above the mean level of the sea, and visible at a distance of four miles. The position of the light-house is 40° 2′ 18″ north, long. 26° 12′ 5″ east of Greenwich.

Revolving Light of Khephez or Barber's Point.—Also, a revolving *red* light, eclipsed every *thirty seconds*, is shown from a light-house near the battery in ruins, one mile southwest from Khephez or Barber's Point, on the coast of Asia. The light is 59 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen at a distance of twelve miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses, of the fourth order. The light-house is in lat. 40° 5′ 21″ north, long. 26° 22′ 15″ east of Greenwich.

Fixed Red Lights on Cape Peskieri.—Also, two *fixed red* lights, placed vertically, are exhibited from a light-house at Cape Peskieri, N. N. W. of the village of Bourgas, on the coast of Asia, at an elevation of

of 56 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen at a distance of four miles. The position of the light-house is in lat. 40° 16′ 40″north, long. 26° 34′ 15″ east of Greenwich.

Mediterranean Sea.—Sea of Marmora.—The Turkish government has given notice, that on the 16th day of August, 1861, the following lights were exhibited from light-houses recently erected in the Sea of Marmora:

Fixed and Flashing Light on Cape Khoraz.—A *fixed* and *flashing* white light, a flash recurring every *thirty seconds*, has been established on the summit of Cape Khoraz, about 1¾ miles from the village of Khoraz, on the coast of Europe. The light is 180 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen in clear weather at a distance of 22 miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses, of the second order. The position of the light-house is in lat. 40° 41′ 15″ north, long. 27° 17′ 15″ east of Greenwich.

Fixed Light at Erekli.—Also, a *fixed* white light on the west point of the coast south of the roadstead of Erekli, on the coast of Europe. The light is 164 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen in clear weather at a distance of eleven miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses, of the fifth order. The position of the light-house is in lat. 40° 58′ 28″ north, long. 27° 58′ 15″ east of Greenwich.

Fixed Light at Kutali.—Also, a *fixed* white light on the rock at the western entrance between Kutali and Rabby (Araplar) islands, at an elevation of 49 feet above the sea, and visible at a distance of ten miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses, of the fifth order. The position of the light-house is given in lat. 40° 30′ 34″ north, long. 27° 28′ 5″ east of Greenwich.

Fixed Red Lights on Palio Point.—Also, two *fixed red* lights, placed vertically, on the western point of Artaki peninsula, at the northern entrance of the channel of Rhoda, at an elevation of 138 feet above the sea, and visible at five miles. The position of the light-house is given in lat. 40° 29′ 23″ north, long. 27° 40′ 40″ east of Greenwich.

Yarmouth Sands.—Corton Gatway.—Official information has been received from the Trinity House, London, that a safe channel, exceeding six-tenths of a mile in breadth, has formed between the Corton and Holm sands, known as the Corton Gatway, and will, on or about the 1st November next, be buoyed off as a day channel, with circular *black* and *white* striped buoys, on the N. E. side, and with vertically *red* and *white* striped buoys on the S. W. side, of which further particulars will be given when the buoys are placed. Notice is also given, that on the 1st of January, 1862, a light-vessel, showing a quick revolving *red* light, will be placed in fifteen fathoms, just outside the present South Corton Buoy, as a fairway light to the said channel.

Stanford Channel.—Notice having been previously given that this channel can no longer be safely navigated by night, the Stanford light-vessel will be taken away on the 1st January, 1862.

Entrances to the Thames.—Shingles Channel.—Notice is also given, that a deep channel has formed between the Girdler and Shingles sands, and will, on or about the 1st November, be buoyed off with *red* buoys on the N. E. side, and vertically *black* and *white* striped buoys on the S. W. side, of which further particulars will be given when the buoys

are placed. It being desirable to alter the color of the four white buoys at the entrance of the Thames, for the purpose of making them more distinctive, the undermentioned buoys will be altered at the same time, as follows, viz.: the Nore buoy, to circular *black* and *white* striped; the Cant, to chequered *red* and *white;* West and Middle Spaniard, to *black.* The staff and ball being removed from the West Spaniard buoy.

Baltic.—Gulf of Bothnia.—Fixed and Flashing Light on Lungo Island.—Official information has been received that the Royal Administration of Maritime affairs at Stockholm has given notice, that on the 1st day of September, 1861, a light was exhibited from a light-house recently erected on the southern point of Lungo island, off Hernosand, on the coast of Sweden. The light is a *fixed* and *flashing* white light. A *flash* lasting *seven seconds* is preceded and followed by intervals of darkness, each being of *twenty seconds* duration; a fixed light then appears for *two minutes and thirteen seconds,* and is followed by the interval of darkness which precedes the flash. The light is elevated 78 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen in clear weather at a distance of twelve miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses, of the fourth order. The tower is 25 feet high, circular, and colored yellow; its base being 53 feet above the sea. The keeper's dwelling, painted red, and visible some distance at sea, stands 250 feet northwest of the tower, which is in lat. 62° 38½′ north, and long. 18° 6′ east of Greenwich.

Beacon on Ryvingen Island.—Also, that a new beacon of stone, in the form of a pyramid, 30 feet high and painted yellow, was to be erected in the place of the old one on the island of Ryvingen, near Mandel, in July last.

FINDING COMPASS DEVIATION AT KRONSTAT.

The Ministry of Marine has given the following notice of an arrangement made in the commercial port of Kronstat, to enable mariners to determine the deviations of their compasses, as resulting from the effects of the iron of the ship or the cargo on board, whilst lying at anchor in the great roadstead of that port, viz.: The correct magnetic bearings of the foundry chimney from various parts of the western wall of the commercial port of Kronstat are indicated by a series of marks, ranging between the bearings of N. 89° E. and S. 79° E., painted on the western face of the wall. The degrees are marked in figures legible from the roadstead of Kronstat, the even figures being on a black ground, and the odd figures on a red ground, in the following order:

9 80 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 90 9

indicating as here stated under each figure—

S.79° E. S.80° E. S.81° E. S.82° E. S.83° E. S.84° E. S.85° E. S.86° E. S.87° E. S.88° E. S.89° E. E. N.89° E.

The half degree between each of the above is also denoted by a white circular mark between them. The difference between the bearing of the foundry chimney, as indicated by any one of these marks and that observed from the ship when it is seen in line with it, is, therefore, the deviation of the compass. (Mariners will remember that this arrangement is similar in principle to that adopted at Liverpool, where the bearings of Vauxhall chimney for the same purpose are legibly painted on the sea face of the dock walls of that port. The variation of the compass at Kronstat has been assumed in the above arrangement to be 4° W.)

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

I. Seizures at New-York. II. The Stade Dues. III. Treaty with Denmark. IV. French West Indies. V. Danish West Indies.

SEIZURES BY CUSTOM-HOUSE OFFICERS.

For the space of several months past, various vessels from Buenos Ayres, with cargoes of wool, hides and horns, consigned to merchants of this city, have been seized by the custom-house authorities, on a charge that the invoices of the cargoes were fraudulent and the cargoes, therefore, liable to confiscation.

This course has caused considerable annoyance to the merchants, who acted in good faith with the government, and had no intention, much less desire, to defraud the United States out of a farthing of their just dues. Some cargoes have been examined, re-appraised and released; in other cases the consignees have entered into bonds to abide the eventual adjustment of the difficulty, and thus released their cargoes; while other cases are in the courts, and the goods still in the possession of the custom-house authorities.

The whole difficulty seems to arise out of a misunderstanding between the custom-house appraisers and the consignees relative to the currency of Buenos Ayres, whence the goods are imported. By the old tariff, for instance, wool invoiced at less than twenty cents per pound *ad valorem* was admitted free of duty.

The revenue law of 1799 requires that in all cases where the currency of the country, whence goods are imported, is not fixed by the schedule of the United States, the consul at the port of exportation shall certify the value of the same, in Spanish or American dollars; which certificate shall be affixed to the invoice, and serve as a guide for the collector in estimating the value of the goods. Invoices from these countries are required to be made out in the currency of those countries, and the collector, in estimating the value, determines the same by the consular certificate.

The currency of Buenos Ayres is paper money which, forty or fifty years ago, represented a par value of one Spanish dollar; that is, one paper dollar was equivalent in value to one Spanish dollar. The political and other disturbances of the country, however, soon depreciated this value, and issues of paper money were made to such an extent from time to time, that at last the value of the paper money so depreciated, that now, with a circulation of about four or five hundred millions, each dollar is nominally worth only about four cents, or, in other words, it requires twenty-five of the paper dollars to equal in value one Spanish dollar.

This valuation, even, fluctuates to a considerable extent, and hence certificates of the consul are found representing the value of the currency at various amounts, from twenty-two to twenty-five to the dollar.

In some of the interior provinces the currency is reals of plate, rep-

resenting one-eighth of a dollar, but by the laws of the United States they are worth but one-tenth, requiring ten reals of plate to equal in value one dollar or La Plata dollar. Bargains for the products of the interior are based on this currency, but when payment is made, the value is estimated at ten to the dollar. Gold and silver coin, in fact, has no value as currency, being an article of commerce and fluctuating in value, as does almost any commodity with us.

Doubloons, even, fluctuate according to the state of the market, as they do here. Before the influx of gold from California and Australia doubloons had a standard value, which is now much depreciated even in this country.

In estimating the value of importations from Buenos Ayres the collector assumes a doubloon to represent in value sixteen Spanish dollars; and hence, for instance, seeing them quoted in that country at 335 dollars Buenos Ayres currency, he estimates the value of the Buenos Ayres dollar at a fraction less than twenty-one, while in fact their value is only twenty-five to the dollar. The collector also assumes to call eight reals equivalent to one Spanish dollar; thus proportionately affecting the value of the goods at the port of exportation.

It is held to be a well-settled principle of revenue law, based upon the act of 1799, that the collector has no authority to go behind the consular certificate, under any circumstances; he being the officer of the government as much as is the collector. The collector is governed by this certificate in assessing duties, and upon it he estimates whatever duty is due the government.

It is doubtful if the Treasury Department at Washington will sustain the construction that has been placed upon the revenue laws by which these seizures are justified; consequently the goods seized will have to be surrendered, either voluntarily by the collector or through due process of law.

THE STADE DUES.

The ships of the nine powers who concluded a treaty with Hanover for the abolition of the Stade dues are not only entirely free of the liability to pay these dues, but also from the obligation of giving a security for the amount, which was required while the negotiations were pending. The arrangements with France, Sweden, Denmark and Lubeck are nearly concluded. The States that have not yet made any agreement with Hanover as to the duties are the United States, the new kingdom of Italy and Oldenburg. The government of the North American Federation has, however, instructed its Minister at Berlin to enter into communication with Hanover on the conditions agreed to by the other powers. The political condition of the kingdom of Italy delays the negotiations with it, and Oldenburg refuses to accept the distribution of the indemnity stipulated by the other treaties. In a semi-official document published at Hamburg it is announced, that up to the present date the treaty concluded with Hanover for the abolition of the Stade dues has been ratified by the governments of Great Britain, Brazil, Belgium, Holland, Portugal, Hamburg, Prussia, Austria and Russia.

TREATY WITH DENMARK.

The President has published the text of two additional articles added in July last to the treaty between Denmark and the United States. The articles provide, first, that the consular agents of the respective governments shall have the right to sit as judges and arbitrators in such differences as may arise at sea or in port between the captain, officers and crew of vessels of their own nation; and, second, that the consular agent have power to require the assistance of the local authorities for the search, arrest and imprisonment of deserters from the ships of war and merchant vessels of their country.

FRENCH WEST INDIES.

The new commercial system granted by France to her colonies of Martinique, Guadaloupe and the Isle of Reunion, superseding the former prohibitive regulations, came into force in the beginning of September. By this change the above islands are opened to the commerce and navigation of the whole world. The importation of merchandise will take place on the same terms as into France, except where the colonial tariff is more liberal, in which case the latter rate is retained. Trade can be carried on under any flag, but, with certain exceptions, a differential duty is charged on foreign as compared with French ships. All export duties on colonial merchandise are abolished. English vessels will now be enabled to take cargoes of foreign goods to these islands, and return laden with produce, either to their port of shipment or to France. The production of sugar is expected to be largely benefited, and increased activity is also looked for in the coffee, dye-woods and spirit trades. The principal articles imported by the three islands are wood for building, manufactured iron, salted meat and fish, butter, oil, flour and coal, and at each colony there is a port offering every convenience to maritime commerce. The change from exclusive prohibition to a system more nearly approaching free trade appears to be the commencement of a new and important era for these dependencies.

PRIVATEERS IN THE DANISH WEST INDIES.

The following official notice, excluding privateers from the Danish West India ports, appears in the St. Thomas *Tidende*, of the 20th July:

"Owing to the present state of political affairs in America, it is hereby brought to public notice, that privateers of no nation whatever will be allowed to resort to the Danish West India harbors or waters, or to send their prizes either to St. Thomas or any other of the harbors in these islands, or dispose of them there, as little as it will be allowed that vessels be provided in the Danish West India Islands with requisites for privateering, whether consisting in materials of war and provisions, or letters of marque from any belligerent power.

"Government for the Danish West India Possessions, St. Croix, 12th July, 1861.

"W. Birch."

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

I. Early Manufactures in Rhode Island. II. Coal Mining in India. III. The Working of English Mines. IV. Manilla Rope. V. Japanese Paper. VI. Breech-Loading Pistol-Knife. VII. The National Beverage. VIII. "Entire" Porter. IX. Missouri Lead Mines. X. Shoddy. XI. Shoddy, Flocks and Noils. XII. Photographs in the House of Commons. XIII. Wages and Profits. XIV. Poisoned Dressers. XV. Re-making Leather. XVI. Lake Superior Iron.

EARLY MANUFACTURES IN RHODE ISLAND.

At a special meeting of the Rhode Island Historical Society, the Rev. Mr. Banvard, of North Providence, read a paper upon the early history of Pawtucket.

The name of "Pawtucket," Mr. Banvard said, was given to it by the natives, and signified "great falls of water." Pawtuxet, its diminutive, means "little falls of water."

In 1636, Roger Williams purchased of Canonicus and Miantinomo, after two years of negotiation, all the lands and meadows on the Moshassuck and Wanosquatucket Rivers. A transfer of a large portion of those lands was made to Joseph Jenks, October 10, 1671. Jenks was, according to tradition, the first settler of the town; and, being a manufacturer of anchors and other heavy iron articles, is said to have left Lynn because of the expense of obtaining wood and coal, which had become scarce there, and to have selected Pawtucket as a desirable location on account, not only of the abundance of fuel, but also of water power. This forge, situated on the western side of the Blackstone River, was burned by the Indians in 1675, in King Philip's war. Its site is now occupied by a large cotton mill. Oziel Wilkinson, a blacksmith, who came from Smithfield, afterwards commenced business near Jenks' establishment. This shop was known as the Upper Anchor shop; Jenks' as the Lower Anchor shop. Wilkinson's sons succeeded him, and greatly enlarged the business. Oil mills were early erected for it by one Kennedy, and afterwards by Wilkinson.

About sixty years ago there was an old snuff mill standing on the banks of the Blackstone, a short distance above Pawtucket, and, about the same time, a chocolate mill was in operation further up the stream, a part of the same building being occupied as a fulling mill and for the manufacture of wash-leather. Over $1,000 worth of this article was stolen from Colonel Hall, who was the manufacturer, and found a long time afterwards, so damaged as to be useless, in the woods, with other stolen goods. This mill subsequently became a snuff mill, and afterwards a cotton factory, and, with two or three other buildings, constituted the whole village of what is now Central Falls. Nearly all the land in that vicinity belonged, at that time, to the Jenks family.

In the great flood of 1807, that forced its way through the valley of the Blackstone, fourteen buildings were swept away from the village and

carried down the stream. Merchandise of all sorts floated down the current. A keg of butter, marked with the name of RICHARD WATERMAN, made a successful trip as far as Newport, where it was found some time after. From certain houses the deliverance of their inmates was effected with great difficulty and hazard. One factory was carried down the stream without going to pieces. Among the buildings destroyed was that in which SAMUEL SLATER tried his various experiments, and manufactured machinery for the first cotton mill in America.

Concerning the changes in that water-course known as "Sargent's Trench," and the discoveries made thereupon, the essayist made special and appropriate mention, and then proceeded to sketch an account of the life and labors of SAMUEL SLATER, a young man, 22 years of age, when he was taken to Pawtucket by the venerable MOSES BROWN, on the 18th of January, 1790. After great labor, amid frequent alternations of hope and disappointment, the repeated efforts of Mr. SLATER met with success. His carding, spinning and roving machines, to secure the operation of which his labor and experiment had been long directed, finally worked well, and the machinery moved to his satisfaction. MOSES BROWN, in a letter dated Providence, 19th of fourth month, 1791, says: "The weavers inform me the yarn works better than any linen they have had, and takes less trouble to warp and weave it." To SLATER is conceded the honor of introducing the English method of using machinery in the spinning of cotton.

The manufacturing of steel was introduced into Pawtucket somewhere about 1790.

President MONROE, while on a tour through New-England, visited SLATER'S mill, at Pawtucket, and was shown the first frames for water-spinning, according to those patents which SLATER himself had erected from memory, without the least assistance from drawings or models. President JACKSON also visited Pawtucket, and honored Mr. SLATER with a call at his own residence, holding a pleasant interview with him, which Mr. BANVARD described.

Not long after the year 1814, when patterns of the power-loom were brought to Providence, Mr. DAVID WILKINSON introduced it and the dresser into Pawtucket, and manufactured them for sale. Previously to 1815 all weaving was done by hand. The writer referred at length to the manufacture of superior fire engines by Mr. WILLIAM JEFFERS, and to that of sash and blinds by DANIEL D. SWEET, originated in 1838 by DANIEL DUNHAM.

Sixty years ago there were but seventeen houses on the Massachusetts side of the river, and about twice that number on the Rhode Island side. About a hundred years ago there were two ship yards, one on each side of the river.

COAL MINING IN INDIA.

Over the vast peninsula of India, which has an area of 800,000 square miles, coal is found only in the valley of the Ganges and neighboring hills, in Rawah to the south of the Soane, in the Nerbudda valley, and in the Sylhet hills on the far northeast. There is no workable coal elsewhere in the northwestern provinces, none in Oude, the Punjaub, Scinde, Bombay or Madras. This fact is the less cheering that iron and lime

are generally associated with coal in the same formation, and that India, except in the east, is comparatively destitute of these great elements and necessities of modern civilization. It is no great consolation to say that where coal exists, it is abundant; that Bearbhoom, for instance, is one mass of mineral wealth. India is as large as Europe, and the coal of Raneegunge or lime of Sylhet is more useless to the cotton mills and building firms of Bombay or Madras than that of Newcastle is to Moscow. Coal is most bulky for carriage, and railway carriages will always be so expensive that it will probably be cheaper for Bombay to use good English than indifferent Bengal or even Nerbudda coal. The following abstract contains the result of Mr. OLDHAM's inquiries:

Districts.	1858.		1859.		1860.
Raneegunge coalfield,.....	5,917,000	....	8,949,600	....	8,559,097
Rajmahal hills,.....	219,000	....	843,000	....	1,222,860
Kurhurbari,.....	4,000	....	108,182	....	275,256
Palamow,.....	....	....	28,648	....	30,900
Sylhet hills,.....	22,319	....	32,498	....	....
Total in maunds,.....	6,162,319	....	9,961,928	....	10,088,113
or in tons,.....	226,140	....	365,575	....	370,206

These figures show the healthiness of the trade, which, notwithstanding the local fluctuations, has steadily progressed. In the Raneegunge coalfield, which is now tapped by the East Indian Railway, and which will shortly be pierced by two branches, there were last year 49 collieries, with 27 steam-engines at work. This is the result of little more than 20 years' operations. The number of collieries in the United Kingdom is 2,654, and the out-turn of coal is 72,000,000 tons annually, or 200 times that of India. Our readers will form a better estimate of the coal-producing power of India, if we place in order, with the assistance of Mr. HUNT's mining records, the out-turn of all the coal countries in the world in 1857. We regret Mr. OLDHAM has not given the proportion of the coal area to that of the whole country:

Countries.	*Proportion of whole area.*		*Production in tons.*
British Islands,.....	1—10	....	66,000,000
Belgium,.....	1—22	....	5,700,000
France,.....	1–100	....	4,500,000
United States,.....	2—9	....	4,500,000
Prussia,.....	1—90	....	3,500,000
British North America,.....	1—20	....	900,000
British India,.....	....	....	370,206
Bohemia,.....	1—20	....	300,000
Spain,.....	1—52	....	250,000

Of the nine countries, India is thus already seventh on the list. What a future for America is involved in the fact that nearly a fourth of her whole area, as far as investigated, is covered with coal. India raises a third more than Spain, and about the same amount as Warwickshire. The consumption of coal in India and by vessels leaving its ports we may estimate at 700,000 tons annually, the amount imported in 1857 from England being 329,157 tons. Reckoning the price of Indian coal in Calcutta at five annas a maund, or 17s. a ton, and English coal at the same rate, (though it is far higher,) we have more than £500,000 sterling spent on coal in India. As the trade and manufactures of India increase, and

as machinery comes to be more and more largely introduced, indigenous coal will become more important. The fact that the supply is in certain districts inexhaustible, and that the demand is annually increasing, is one full of hope for the coal companies and proprietors who already occupy, or, like the Bengal Coal Company, monopolize the field. It is possible the Nerbudda fields, worked by the company just established, may supply Bombay and the southern portion of the northwestern provinces on the completion of the railway. But Oude, the Punjaub and Madras must still look to their forests, which, on both sanitary and commercial grounds, it becomes daily of more importance to utilize and renew.—*Friend of India.*

THE WORKING OF THE ENGLISH MINES.

An English journal, after valuing the total product of the mines of Great Britain at £41,491,102 per annum, and computing that England's supply of coal will last at least seven hundred years longer, at present rates of consumption, gives the following account of the depth to which the bowels of the earth have been pierced in England:

"The depth to which we mine for coal is already great. The pit at Duckenfield, in Cheshire, is 2,004 feet below the surface to the point where it intersects the 'Black Mine Coal,' a seam which is four feet six inches thick, and of the best quality for domestic and manufacturing purposes; from this point a further depth of 500 feet has been attained by means of an engine plane in the bed of coal, so that a great portion of the coal is now raised from the enormous depth of 2,504 feet. At Pendleton, near Manchester, coal is daily worked from a depth of 2,135 feet; and the Cannel coal of Wigan is brought from 1,773 feet below the surface. Many of the Durham collieries are equally deep and far more extended in their subterranean labyrinths. Some of those, and others in Cumberland, are worked out far under the bed of the sea, and on both sides of the island we are rapidly extending our sub-oceanic burrowing.

"Dalcouth tin mine, in Cornwall, is now working at one thousand eight hundred feet from the surface, and is rapidly sinking deeper. The depth of Tresavean, a copper mine, is two thousand one hundred and eighty feet. Many other tin and copper mines are approaching these depths; and under the Atlantic waves, in Botallack, Levant and other mines, man is pursuing his labors daily at half a mile from the shore. To aid the miner in these severe tasks gigantic steam engines, with cylinders one hundred inches in diameter, are employed in pumping water from those vast depths. Winding-engines, which are masterpieces of mechanical skill, are ever at work raising the minerals from each dark abyss, and 'man engines,' of considerable ingenuity—so called because they bring the wearied miner to the light of day, saving him from the toil of climbing up perpendicular ladders—are introduced in many of our most perfectly conducted mines. Our coals cost us annually one thousand lives, and more than double that number of our metaliferous miners perish from accidents in the mines, or at unusually early age—thirty-two—from diseases contracted by the conditions of their toils. By the industry of our mining population there is annually added to our national wealth considerably more than thirty millions sterling. This,

when elaborated by the process of manufacture, is increased in value tenfold. While we are thus drawing upon that 'hoarded treasure, guarded by dragons white and red,' which the enchanter MERLIN is fabled to have concealed in the caves of the earth, we should not cease to remember how much of mental labor and muscular power is expended, and how large a per centage of human life is annually sacrificed in the contest with those hydra-headed evils which are truly personified by the dragons of the legend."

MANILLA ROPE.

A firm in Liverpool, manufacturers of hempen and wire rope, now advertise thus:

"The present unusually low price of manilla hemp induces us to bring to notice the economy of using it for rope. Being much lighter than Russian hemp, at the same price per cwt., it would be fully 20 per cent. cheaper, and when spun by machinery is the strongest and most durable rope in use. Tarred Manilla answers best for all ropes much exposed to wet, as hawsers, warps," &c.

Manilla hemp, according to the Boston *Commercial Bulletin*, (one of the best commercial papers of the day,) is derived from a species of banana tree, indigenous to the forests of Mindano, one of the largest islands of the Phillippine group. The tree is cultivated for its fiber, which is obtained by rotting the trunk of the tree until the woody matter falls away from the fiber, which, with little cleaning, becomes the Manilla hemp of commerce. This is collected by the natives into rolls, bundles and small bales, care being taken not to entangle the hemp, shipped in small coasting vessels to Manilla, and then screwed into the regular 280 lb. bales of commerce. The bulk of the product is then shipped to the United States, England and other commercial countries using comparatively little of this fiber in their cordage manufactories. Under favorable circumstances the Phillippines will continue a sufficient supply for the ordinary demands of commerce, at rates not much varying from the present, as Americans, being the largest buyers, keep down competition, while care is taken by those in the trade not to let the rates to the producer recede so far as to check production.

It is probable that if a new source of supply for this commodity is ever sought, it will be found indigenous to the Caroline and portions of the Solomon's Islands, and in the mountains of the Eastern Archipelago. Perhaps it could be cultivated profitably in Nicaragua and Central America.

JAPANESE PAPER.

We may take some instructions from the Japanese, who do not use rags for making paper, but the inner bark of trees. From a recent account in *Blackwood's Magazine*, it appears that this peculiar people are far in advance of the rest of the world in some specialties of paper making. The writer of the article to which we refer, in describing the peculiarities of the Japanese, says:

"It is wonderful to see the thousand useful as well as ornamental purposes for which paper is applied in the hands of these industrious and tasteful people. Our *papier mache* manufacturers should go to Yedo to learn what can be done with paper. We saw it made into material closely resembling Russian and Morocco leather; it was very difficult to detect the difference. With the aid of lacker, varnish and skilful painting, paper makes excellent trunks, saddles, telescope-cases, the frames of microscopes; and we even saw and used excellent water-proof coats made of paper, which did keep out the rain, and were as supple as the best Mackintosh, (India rubber.) The Japanese use neither silk nor cotton handkerchiefs, towels or dusters; paper in their hands serves as an excellent substitute. It is soft, thin, and of a pale yellow color, plentiful and cheap. The inner walls of many a Japanese apartment are formed of paper, being nothing more than painted screens. Their windows are covered with a fine translucent description of the same material. We saw what seemed to be balls of twine, which were nothing but long shreds of tough paper rolled up. If a shopkeeper had a parcel to tie up he would take a strip of paper, roll it up quickly between his hands and use it for twine. In short, without paper, all Japan would come to a dead lock. * * Japanese mothers-in-law invariably stipulate in the marriage settlement that the bride is to have a certain quantity of paper allowed her."

BREECH-LOADING PISTOL KNIFE.

An English cotemporary has inspected a most formidable and deadly weapon, invented and patented by Messrs. UNWIN & RODGERS, Rockingham Works, Sheffield, called the Breech-Loading Pistol Knife. It is a neat and portable instrument of warfare, with a bowie and other useful knives attached; also a box to contain the charges, which are in one piece, and the cap, powder and bullet are cast together. It is loaded at the breech, and can be charged and fired twelve times per minute; will kill at a distance of 160 or 170 yards; and is, without exception, the most complete and compact instrument of warfare we have ever seen. As a protection at home and abroad its use will doubtless become general, as it possesses all the conveniences and appliances for carrying on a deadly conflict with an enemy.

OUR NATIONAL BEVERAGE.

Modern Europe is divided into two groups: the Latin races, who drink wine; and the races, more or less Saxon, who drink beer. This difference is no stranger to the manners, hygienic condition, and even the moral faculties of the population. The characters of human societies were formed by alliances, but they are consolidated by the mode of life, and especially by the alimentary beverages. The impetuosity of the Latin races, their sparkling wit and warlike ardor, respond to those qualities which have been called the blood of the grape; those nations whom nature has condemned to a sterner beverage are distinguished for their part by their strength, patience, reflection, obstinate and encroaching toil. Only regarding present facts we might be tempted to believe

that beer originally came from the North; but that is not the country of the beverage. The first that men appear to have drunk was made in Egypt; and the Egyptians, who liked to refer to the gods useful discoveries and social victories, gave the honor of this invention to Osiris. Beer, then, has been from time immemorial the drink adopted in those countries where the vine refuses to grow, either through excess or deficiency of heat. The first colonies which left the East, and pierced the gloomy forests of Europe, made up for the absence of the fruit which Noah pressed by the means old Egypt had discovered—a liquor made with barley and water. It was the favorite fluid of the Anglo-Saxons and Danes, whom we have seen descend in turn on Great Britain. Before their conversion to Christianity, they believed that one of the chief felicities the heroes admitted after death into Odin's Paradise enjoyed, was to drink long draughts of ale from tall cups. Archæologeans have made learned and laborious researches to recover the history of beer in Great Britain. It will be sufficient for us to say that, in Wales also, even small beer was formerly regarded as a luxury, and was only seen on the tables of the great. In England, about the middle of the sixteenth century, Harrison assures us, that when tradesmen and artisans had the good fortune to stumble on a haunch of venison and a glass of strong ale, they believed themselves as magnificently treated as the Lord Mayor. At the present day, what a change! Ale and porter flow into the pewter pots of the humblest taverns; rich and poor—the poor more frequently than the rich refresh themselves with the national beverage—as the Israelites in the desert slaked their thirst at the water leaping from the rock, to quote a minister of the English church. This abundance, compared with the old penury, rejoices the social economist from a certain point of view, for he sees in it the natural movement of science, trade and agriculture, which in time places within reach to the most numerous classes articles which, at the outset, were regard as luxuries. Not only has beer become more available to the working classes, but the quality has improved, and at the present day English beer knows no rival on the continent.—*The English at Home, by* M. Esquiros.

TAVERN SIGN—ENTIRE!

Before the year 1730, the English publicans sold to the thirsty souls of their day three sorts of beer, which they drew from different casks into the same glass, and gave to this mixture the name of half-and-half. The owner of one of these publics, (history has handed down the name,) Horwood, wishing to spare himself the trouble of performing this task so constantly during the day, hit upon brewing the beer which would combine the qualities of all these beers. To this compound he gave the name of "entire," which has adhered to it till this day, at least on the signboards. It was afterwards christened "porter," because principally drunk by that class.—*The English at Home.*

MISSOURI LEAD MINES IN THE HANDS OF REBELS.

We are very sorry to learn that the richest lead mine in Missouri, and, indeed, probably on the globe, is now in the hands of the insurgents,

though they did not succeed in obtaining any of the metal. The mine to which we refer is situated near the village of Granby, Newton County, within twenty-five miles of the southwestern border of that State. It was opened about two years ago by a party of capitalists, having their headquarters at St. Louis, and is known by the name of the BLOW and KENNETT mine. Last year it yielded about seventy-five thousand pigs, or six millions of pounds. Unlike the mines in Eastern Missouri and Northwestern Illinois, this is situated in a level prairie of vast extent. The supply of ore has been pronounced inexhaustible by the State geologist, and the quality is considered the best on the globe, having scarcely any admixtures of foreign substances. The great difficulty has been transportation, there being no navigable river nearer than the Missouri, and no rail-road beyond Rolla, which is fully one hundred miles distant. The western terminus of the Pacific Rail-Road is a little further off; but this route has usually been taken on account of the superior character of the common roads in that part of Missouri. With the mines and furnaces at Granby in their possession, the rebels can supply themselves with lead to any required extent.

SHODDY.

Woollen fabrics furnished for soldiers' wear have been the means of giving the defenders of the country an idea of the thing represented by shoddy. In many instances, a whole corps have found their coats on their backs dropping to pieces after a few days wear, showing their worthlessness for ordinary use of the garments allowed to be imposed upon them by the carelessness or fraud of inspectors. These frail textures owe their rottenness to the liberal mixture in the fabric of an article called "shoddy," which is a discovery of a recent period, and may be ranked, we suppose, among the "latest modern improvements."

The raw material for shoddy is old rags. Woollen rags that were once consigned to the manure heap furnish this material. When the new demand for them first arose, the price was about $5 per ton; since then it has advanced. They are collected and assorted, and then baled for manufacture into carpets, shawls, linsey and black cloths. Selected rags, thus baled, when of the best description, are worth over $100 per ton. The assorters sell to the shoddy manufacturer. This agent, in the process of making old garments into new, takes these rags and passes them through a "rag machine," which is a cylinder, armed with teeth, that, revolving at high speed, pulls them to pieces, reducing them to wool, and freeing them from dust. It is now shoddy, and in this state is saturated with oil or milk, and frequently scoured in heaters, in combination with some chemicals. The process completed, the shoddy is ready for manufacture into cloth. For this purpose it is mixed with new wool in as large proportions as possible. White is used in blankets and light colored goods, and the dark descriptions for coarse cloths, carpets, &c. The "shoddy" is the product of soft woollens, but the hard or black cloths, when treated in a similar manner, produce "mungo," which is used extensively in superfine cloths, which have a finish that may deceive a good judge. It is used largely in felted fabrics.

The shoddy parts of a garment made of the mixed material give way very soon, rubbing out of the cloth. It accumulates between it and the

lining. Formerly it was largely imported from England. After a while, the demand for it here was found to be so good that machines were sent over for its manufacture here. In New-York there are six shoddy mills.

As we have intimated, the impositions of contractors in palming shoddy uniforms on the volunteers, left the soldiers, after a few days trial of the rotton fabrics, almost naked. It is probable that the shoddy fraud was carried to a more outrageous excess in these instances than in ordinary dealings. But it is believed that a large proportion of the cloths sent to market in ordinary times is, so to speak, adulterated by this base-born material, and that fortunes are made and pockets picked through its instrumentality to an extent of which the cheated community of shoddy-cloth wearers have no idea.

FLOCKS, SHODDY AND NOILS.

As there is a great discussion about the composition of woollen fabrics for the army, and as the terms commonly used are not familiar to the generality of people, and as many are apt to be misled through ignorance, we have thought it of sufficient interest to obtain all the facts connected therewith, and we have been kindly furnished with samples of the different materials known as "flocks, shoddy and noils," by a practical manufacturer of this city, with explanations accompanying:

SAMPLES.

No. 1.—*Noils.*—That is, short wool combed from long wool to fit the latter for worsted, for kerseys and blankets.

No. 2.—Washed and unwashed Russian and South American wool; the first for blankets, the second for kerseys.

No. 3.—*Shoddy.*—Blue for kerseys and stocking yarn; black for satinets and mixed goods.

No. 4.—*Flocks.*—For satinets and cotton warp goods and kerseys.

No. 5.—*Noils.*—Suited for kerseys and blankets, of finer class than No. 1.

No. 6.—*Shoddy.*—Made of old carpets—such as is used in English blankets—and, perhaps, some American. Price, 10 cents a pound; English blankets, 40 cents. This is mixed with long wool and spun into filling.

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS "DONE" BY A FRENCHMAN.

An enterprising French photographer has established himself and his "machinery" on the river terrace in front of the House of Commons, with the view of inducing the members to have their portraits taken for a parliamentary album, to contain the effigies of the six hundred and fifty-four honorable gentlemen. Whenever the little Frenchman beholds a member, he rushes up to him, takes off his (the member's) hat, places him in a position in front of his machine, and beseeches him in the worst imaginable English to stand at ease "for just one small moment!" It is pleasant to witness the genial manner in which the legislative mind unbends itself, and submits to the importunities of the artist. There is, of course, nothing to pay, which, perhaps, accounts for the success which has hitherto attended the parliamentary album.—*The British Journal of Photography.*

THE RATIO OF WAGES AND PROFITS.

Wages constitute the chief outgoing in several of the staple manufactures of the country. In the manufacture of fine woollen cloth the wages paid by the manufacturer amount to about 60 per cent. upon the total expenditure incurred between the purchase of the wool and the time when the cloth is in a state fit for sale; in the manufacture of woven yarn the corresponding expenditure in wages is about 48 per cent. In the manufacture of earthenware the proportion of wages is about 40 per cent.; that is to say, in the conversion of the requisite quantity of clay into goods worth £100, £40 are paid to workmen in wages. In the manufacture of pig iron the expense of the labor employed amounts to no less than 81 per cent.; and in its subsequent conversion into bar iron to 85 per cent. The expense of working collieries resolves almost wholly into labor, in some instances amounting to 90 per cent. on the current expenditure. In different branches of the steel manufacture the outgoings for labor are very considerable. For instance, in the production of the subjoined articles:

	Material.		*Wages.*
Table knives and forks,	35 per cent.	....	65 per cent.
Razors,	10 "	....	90 "
Scissors, (coarse,)	15 "	....	85 "
Scissors, (fine,)	4 "	....	96 "

At the instant, and without more inquiry, we are not prepared to state the ratio between the cost of material and the labor in the production of the broad sheet now in course of perusal; but at a hap-hazard guess we should say that the disproportion is fully as great as that between razors meant to shave, or fine scissors, such as ladies use. Enough data, however, has been adduced to show how loosely wages enter into the prices of commodities. What proportion profits bear to wages is not easy to determine. That depends on the state of the market and the humor of buyers. But as prices are not affected by the relations between them, society has no interest in their allocution. The contest between wages and profits is simply a struggle whether a greater or less sum shall go into the pockets of the employer or the employed.—*Liverpool Albion.*

POISONED DRESSES.

A medical correspondent of a London cotemporary recently stated that thirteen ounces of arsenical poison had been found in one tarletan dress. Another correspondent of the same journal calls attention to the following extract from the report made by M. Van Broek to the Belgian government, upon the subject of poisonous colors: It is not merely the poor workwomen who have to suffer from the poisonous emanations of arsenical flowers. Those who work them up, merchants and milliners—those, above all, who wear them—often experience, without being able to account for what they feel, the pernicious effects of the poison which surrounds them. The head of one of the most important houses of business of this kind assured me, lately, that every time he presided over the arrangement of a trimming into which a luxuriant foliage enters, he experiences a more or less violent headache, vertigo, nausea and an obstinate dry cough. The workwomen whom he employs, being more exposed than himself, present these disagreeable symptoms in a still more

marked degree. Moreover, my informant assured me that it is always with extreme reluctance, and by express command, that he undertakes such a task. After such an avowal, it is not difficult to imagine what passes in the midst of those worldly vortices where, at the same time, passions and flowers are agitated and shed. Shaken, crushed and bruised, the poisonous foliage delivers to a burning atmosphere its brilliant and dangerous dust; the latter spreads everywhere and on everything; clothes, hair, the moist skin, the air we breathe, nothing escapes its assaults, which are certainly not unconnected with the frequent illnesses which follow gay and extensive reunions. Sometimes even the effects of the arsenite of copper are immediately perceptible; and more than one woman is indebted to it for the redness of the skin, and sufficiently serious cutaneous irritations.

RE-MAKING LEATHER.

Various attempts have been made to use scraps of waste leather in the manufacture of articles for which pure leather has been employed; but the new products have generally failed to be serviceable where they were exposed to much wear, because they lacked strength or tenacity. In some cases other substances have been used in connection with waste leather. A device of this sort has lately been patented in England by Mr. T. Gee, of Nottingham, who uses hemp or flax fiber. His product is designed to be used for belting, uppers of shoes, &c.

He first takes old boots and shoes, old harness, belts, &c., cuts them in small pieces, washes them thoroughly in water, and reduces them to a soft, pulpy condition by soaking. After this he rolls them out between rollers, dries and mixes them with minute quantities of hemp or flax fiber. They are now intimately united together with a strong solution of glue or gutta percha, then rolled out into bands for belts, or pressed into moulds for the uppers of shoes, or other articles designed to be manufactured from it.

LAKE SUPERIOR IRON.

In 1855 the shipments of iron from Lake Superior were 1,447 tons. The amount gradually increased until 1860, when 150,000 tons were shipped. This year the shipments will not exceed 40,000 tons. The total value of all the ore shipped, and that melted since the mines were worked, is about $1,326,000 at Marquette. The capital invested in the mines amounts to $2,286,000. The Lake Superior *News*, of November 2d, from which we gather the foregoing facts, says:

Of the companies now doing business here, we know of none but what, with judicious management, can realize a handsome profit upon whatever branch they are engaged in. This year, however, is a peculiarly hard one upon all doing business in the Upper Peninsula. The general stagnation caused by the war has affected us severely, and now, with a six months' winter before us, during which time there is no possibility of getting our products to market, the chance is, that all the manufacturing companies will be straitened for available means. Yet, as there is plenty of provisions in the country, if all will "bear and forbear," they can weather the point; and from all indications we have no doubt that the next year will be one of general prosperity for Lake Superior.

THE NEW-YORK CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

A NEW PLAN OF ARBITRATION.

The Chamber of Commerce is one of our oldest institutions, and has come down to us from colonial times. It is composed of the most influential and successful merchants of the city of New-York, and its influence in commercial affairs is due not only to its years and experience, but its probity. Its presiding officers from 1768, the time of John Cruger, down to the present, have been men of mark in the mercantile world. Walton, Alsop, Broome, Sands, Ray, Bayard, Lenox, Carow, Ogden, Goodhue, King, Grinnell and Perit have been at the head of the institution and maintained its character under all the changes and misfortunes of the times.

The following eminent merchants have been the successive presidents of the Chamber of Commerce from its formation:

Elected.	*Retired.*	*Elected:*	*Retired.*
1768, John Cruger,	1770	1819, William Bayard,	1827
1770, Hugh Wallace,	1771	1827, Robert Lenox,	1840
1771, Elias Desbrosses,	1774	1840, Isaac Carow,	1842
1774, William Walton,	1775	1842, Jas. De Peyster Ogden,	1845
1775, Isaac Low,	1784	1845, James G. King,	1847
1784, John Alsop,	1785	1847, Moses H. Grinnell,	1848
1785, John Broome,	1794	1848, James G. King,	1849
1794, Comfort Sands,	1798	1849, Moses H. Grinnell,	1852
1798, John Murray,	1806	1852, Elias Hicks, (died,)	1853
1806, Cornelius Ray,	1819	1853, Pelatiah Perit.	

It has done always essential good; it took decided ground even in its early day against the odious Stamp act, and its action has since led to a vast number of improvements and reforms, such, for example, as the first modification of the damage on foreign and domestic bills of exchange; the reform of the old inspection laws in relation to ashes and flour; the valuation of foreign gold coins; the cleansing the streets and regulation of the city markets; the establishing of our trade with China; the discouragement of smuggling; the first canalization in this State around the Falls of the Mohawk River, and the carrying place at Wood Creek; the system of pilotage; the resistance of the colonial commercial system of Great Britain in its attempt upon our own; the Erie Canal; the breakwater in the Delaware; the location of the present Custom-House; the employment of relief vessels upon our coast in winter; the system of wharfage and the regulation of the piers; the improvement of the light-house system; the introduction of the warehousing system; the Pilot Commissioners Board and the destruction of a previous monopoly of pilotage; the carrying of lights on board ships navigating our waters; a rail-road to the Pacific; the formation of a hydrographical bureau at Washington; the ventilation and provisioning of passenger vessels; the employment of a government steam cutter in our harbor; encouragement to the North Carolina scheme of improving Albemarle Sound; (now accomplished;)

the care of our sick seamen in foreign ports; the establishment of a branch mint in this city; the importation of gold from England in 1837, during financial crisis of that year, for the relief of the moneyed institutions the of New-York, leading to the resumption of specie payments; the abrogation of the Danish Sound dues; the improvement of discipline and increased efficiency in our merchant service, and a change in the quarantine system.

These beneficial efforts it proposes to continue. There was before the State legislature a bill introduced by Mr. MANIERRE, of this city, giving legal effect to the decisons of the Arbitration Committee of the Chamber, that is to say, the force and effect of arbitrations under the Revised Statutes, with the duties and disabilities therein specified, in all cases of dispute between members of the Chamber, when the same are voluntarily submitted by both parties. It is, in fact, the repetition of an act under which differences among the members of the Corn Exchange are at present adjusted. A decision on any case so submitted is to have the validity of a judgment at law and to be enforced as such.

In 1851 a plan with a similar object, but in a very different form, was discussed by the Chamber of Commerce, and a draft of a bill was prepared to be submitted to the legislature, to establish a Court of Commerce in the city of New-York. It proposed the appointment of a principal judge and four associate judges, with the ordinary powers of courts and the recovery of costs of suit. On due consideration, and after debate, the project was discreetly laid on the table. The present proposition is a very different one in substance and form. It is, that when the members of the Chamber voluntarily agree to refer a dispute, it shall be submitted to the Committee of Arbitration, and their decision shall become a judgment at law. Nothing can be simpler, more effectual or juster than this.

It may be said that questions of law may arise; but what is commercial law, after all, but the sayings, doings and customs of merchants? Whose testimony but theirs is of real value in contested commercial cases already? And if their opinions, at second hand, are entitled to the respect of judges and the confidence of juries, why not have the benefit of them at first hands, in their own Chamber, and at a nominal cost to the parties interested? It is not at all strange that this speedy termination of a dispute should be preferred to an endless litigation, where the costs increase as the square of the distance of the termination. And of all the men in the world who best understand their own business, the merchants are foremost. The lawyers, from time immemorial, have known this. They have heard of and studied the *Law-Merchant* of England as a well-known system, distinguished from the ordinary law; they have read the 27 "EDWARD III.," that all merchants coming to the staple shall be ordered according to the *Law-Merchant*, and not according to the common law of the land. Nor are they ignorant of the opinion of Lord COKE, that "the custom of merchants is part of the law of England, of which the courts are bound to take notice." In the famous case of VANHEATH *agst.* TURNER, (*Winch's Reports*, 24,) the Chief Justice ruled, if there was doubt in a case, "they might send for the merchants to know their custom." Lord HALE (in *Hardie's Reports*, 486) affirmed the opinion of COKE, and there are many other late authorities, both in the British and American courts, which recognise the principle, and point out when and

how it is to be recognised, so that we come to the unavoidable conclusion that trade and commerce are the fountain-head of their own customs, from which flow the great and noble streams of the *Lex Mercatoria*. If this be so, the Chamber of Commerce is taking the right direction, and only travelling back to the sources from whence commercial law has proceeded. The principle is, then, clear and transparent; but, as it has flowed down the vale of time, it has been often muddied and disturbed. Law-makers of other pursuits in life have erected costly, cumbrous tribunals to settle commercial disputes and interpret their peculiar contracts. Philology has gone on board the steamers and sailing packets, with a dictionary in one hand and a bill of costs in the other. Technicalities have triumphed over principles.

The Chamber of Commerce, consisting of at least eight hundred members, merely ask the legislature to permit them to settle their own disputes of business, when they have any, by simple arbitration, by reference to a committee chosen by themselves, who understand what is required of them and what they are about. They will decide promptly, without incessant postponement for absence of counsel, or adjourning for a bad air in the court-room, or the state of the calendar, or any other cause, which now keep thousands of suits in suspense and their fatigued witnesses "on the jump" from one term to another. None of these things will happen under the proposed arrangement. The honorable men who have differences of opinion as to their respective mutual rights will be but too glad to have them unexpensively adjusted by such associates. These decisions will become a guide "not only here but elsewhere," will end a very large amount of costly litigation, and solidify and sustain the commercial principles by which industry and honor may continue to thrive.

The following is the act passed April 15, 1861, in reference to additional powers to the Arbitration Committee of the Chamber of Commerce:

CHAPTER 251.

An Act to amend an Act entitled "An Act to remove doubts concerning the Corporation of the Chamber of Commerce, and to confirm the rights and privileges thereof," passed April thirteenth, seventeen hundred and eighty-four.

Passed April 15, 1861, *three-fifths being present.*

The People of the State of New-York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

SECTION 1. The Chamber of Commerce of the State of New-York shall have power to elect, by ballot, in conformity with the by-laws adopted by the said Chamber, a committee, to be known and styled the "Arbitration Committee of the Chamber of Commerce," and shall have power also to appoint a Committee of Appeal; and the duly elected members of the said Chamber, and all persons claiming by, through or under them, may, under the limitations, and subject to the restrictions imposed by the provisions of the statutes of the State of New-York relative to arbitration, submit to the decision of the Committees of Arbitration and Appeal, as the same may be constituted by the said Chamber, any controversy existing between them which might be the subject of an action, and may agree that a final judgment, in a correct record, to be by them designated, shall be rendered on any award made pursuant to such submission.

Section 2. The Committees of Arbitration and Appeal, elected or appointed as aforesaid, shall possess the same powers and be subject to the same duties and disabilities as appertain to arbitrators by the laws of the State of New-York, and awards made by them must be made, and may be enforced, as therein and thereby directed; and all the provisions contained in title fourteen, part third, chapter eight of the Revised Statutes of the State of New-York, and all acts amendatory or in substitution thereof, shall apply to proceedings had before the said Committees of Arbitration and Appeal, as if specially incorporated herein; except that the judgment be rendered in the manner therein directed, on any award made by them as aforesaid, that is to say, by the Committee of Arbitration, no appeal from its action being taken by either party to the controversy, or by the confirmatory action of the Committee of Appeal, shall not be subject to be removed, reversed, modified or appealed from by the parties interested in such submission as aforesaid.

Section 3. This act shall take effect immediately.

Passed April 15th, 1861.

THE PHILADELPHIA BOARD OF TRADE.

The Defences of Philadelphia.

At a meeting of the Philadelphia Board of Trade, November 25th, the the following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the river and bay defences of Philadelphia are entirely inadequate, and need to be immediately and largely increased; and that it is the duty of the United States government to superintend and effect such an increase, at such points as a competent corps of engineers may indicate, with the least possible delay.

Resolved, That the ardent, patriotic and efficient services of Pennsylvania, in the work of suppressing the Southern rebellion, give her the right to demand from the national government adequate protection for her seaport, Philadelphia.

Resolved, That it is encumbent upon our municipal authorities, upon the executive and legislature of Pennsylvania, and upon our representatives in Congress, to use all their influence in the approaching session, at Washington, towards securing the immediate extension and completion of our maritime defences, and that they should invite, for this purpose, the co-operation of the proper authorities of New-Jersey and Delaware.

Resolved, That a copy of these resolutions be transmitted by the Secretary of the Board of Trade to our city councils, and to our members of Congress and the State legislature.

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

I Kentucky Annual Tobacco Circular. II. Adulteration in Silk Fabrics. III. Adulteration of Tea. IV. Trade and Navigation of Great Britain, 1860. V. The Lumber Trade. VI. The Tallow Business. VII. Liberia Trade.

LOUISVILLE TOBACCO CIRCULAR.

The review of transactions in our Tobacco market during the last season discloses to us remarkable changes in prices, and unusual causes for these fluctuations. In November and December, 1860, prices declined, and the dark political prospects caused a neglect of the article; in January, 1861, more confidence was manifested, and prices advanced slightly. During February farmers rushed their tobacco in such quantities to market that again a slight decline was established. In March supplies fell off, and consisted of such poor qualities that we had to quote ½c. advance on good grades. When, in the month of April, by the bombardment of Fort Sumter, civil war came to an actual outbreak, all business, including the tobacco trade, came to a perfect stagnation; a decline of 1 @ 1½c. took place, and sales were dragging at that. During May, it being evident that Kentucky was not likely to join the Southern Confederacy, confidence was more or less restored, and tobacco received better attention. The blockade of Southern ports, by which shipments of tobacco were transferred to Eastern markets, and the belief that the new crop to be set out would be materially shortened by the war, created a lively speculative feeling, so that sales were effected at full prices; and in our premium tobacco auctions, May 16th and 17th, the contest among buyers was spirited. The embargo laid upon the export of tobacco by Tennessee, and the competition among foreign and domestic buyers, raised our market fully 1c. in June. At that time Kentucky and Missouri remained the only States from which to provide for the wants of Regie buyers, shippers, manufacturers and speculators, and although supplies were sent forward in large quantities, even from sections of Kentucky from whence shipments usually had gone South, an advance of another cent per pound was established by the end of July. In August prices were fully sustained, and the invasion of our State by the Confederates in September deprived us of supplies from the principal tobacco-growing region of Kentucky, thereby causing a very considerable rise in prices for all fat descriptions, which have ever since remained in active demand by our manufacturers, who are enabled to pay enormous rates for leaf, since Virginia is cut off from the trade in the manufactured article.

The attitudes of the large armies engaged in our civil war preclude from us all reliable information of the new crop, now made and harvested. We are unable to learn from Virginia, Tennessee and the half of Kentucky, how much has been raised, how it was harvested and to what degree the weed may have been injured by the devastations of war. We cannot venture an approximate calculation of the quantity made, but judge that Virginia and Tennessee have produced not more than half, if

that much; Missouri, half to five-eighths, and Kentucky perhaps nearly an average crop. The quality of the leaf in Kentucky, as far as we can hear, is fair.

There being at this moment no prospect for a speedy end of our unfortunate strife, and a great falling off in the quantity of the new crop just being made certain, we really do not see what should prevent high prices ruling for some time to come, and opine that some qualities will experience a further rise in the different markets here as well as abroad.

Our table below shows this year's sales to have been larger than for the last ten years, except season 1851–1852:

	Hhds.
Sales from November 1, 1851, to October 31, 1852,.....	23,200
" " 1852, " 1853,.....	16,600
" " 1853, " 1854,.....	10,154
" " 1854, " 1855,.....	11,594
" " 1855, " 1856,.....	14,975
" " 1856, " 1857,.....	9,012
" " 1857, " 1858,.....	18,974
" " 1858, " 1859,.....	18,452
" " 1859, " 1860,.....	17,505
" " 1860, " 1861,.....	20,823

Sales during October, 1852,.....	1,194 hhds.
" " 1853,.....	785 "
" " 1854,.....	747 "
" " 1855,.....	386 "
" " 1856,.....	555 "
" " 1857,.....	170 "
" " 1858,.....	390 "
" " 1859,.....	1,094 "
" " 1860,.....	1,300 "
" " 1861,.....	589 "

	Light.	*Fair.*
Lugs, ordinary sound,.....	$5 75 @ $7 00 ..	$7 00 @ $8 25
Good ordinary,.....	7 00 @ 7 50 ..	8 25 @ 8 75
Common leaf,.....	7 50 @ 8 75 ..	8 75 @ 10 00
Good leaf,.....	8 75 @ 10 25 ..	10 00 @ 12 00
Fine Leaf,.....	10 25 @ 14 00 ..	12 00 @ 15 00

	1860.	1859.	1858.	1857.
Lugs, ord. sound, p. 100 lbs.	$3 25 @ $4 25 ..	$3 25 @ $4 00 ..	$4 75 @ $5 00 ..	$5 60 @ $7 20
Good ordinary,.....	4 25 @ 5 25 ..	4 00 @ 4 75 ..	5 00 @ 6 00 ..	7 20 @ 8 20
Common leaf,.....	5 25 @ 7 00 ..	4 75 @ 6 50 ..	6 00 @ 7 00 ..	8 20 @ 9 10
Good leaf,.....	7 00 @ 9 00 ..	6 50 @ 8 25 ..	7 00 @ 8 75 ..	9 16 @ 10 00
Fine leaf,.....	9 00 @ 12 00 ..	8 25 @ 11 00 ..	8 75 @ 12 00 ..	10 60 @ 12 00
Manufacturing leaf,.....	6 00 @ 15 00 ..	8 00 @ 15 00 ..	8 00 @ 15 00 ..	10 00 @ 16 00

	1856.	1855.	1854.	1853.
Lugs, ord. sound, p. 100 lbs.	$3 10 @ $3 75 ..	$5 80 @ $6 25 ..	$4 65 @ $5 00 ..	$4 60 @ $5 00
Good ordinary,.....	3 75 @ 9 00 ..	6 25 @ 7 00 ..	5 00 @ 5 40 ..	5 00 @ 5 30
Common leaf,.....	9 90 @ 11 22 ..	7 00 @ 7 50 ..	5 40 @ 6 00 ..	5 30 @ 6 10
Good leaf,.....	11 25 @ 12 90 ..	7 50 @ 8 50 ..	6 00 @ 6 75 ..	6 10 @ 7 00
Fine leaf,.....	12 90 @ 14 50 ..	8 50 @ 10 00 ..	6 75 @ 8 25 ..	7 00 @ 9 00
Manufacturing leaf,.....	9 50 @ 16 00 ..	8 00 @ 12 00 ..	7 00 @ 13 00 ..	7 00 @ 14 00

ADULTERATION IN SILK FABRICS.

What is Jute? is a question often asked by the general reader. This article, well-known to those engaged in the East India trade, played an important part in the recent great fire of London. It has been demon-

strated that it is a rather unsafe article to stow away, on account of its easy ignition and tendency to spontaneous combustion. It is also unsafe in another particular, for it is the great adulteration of silk. Jute is the fiber of a species of hemp (botanically speaking the *corcchorus capsularas*) which is grown in the East Indies, chiefly in Bengal. The same class of men who put shoddy into cloth, logwood into a villainous compound, and then call it port wine, adulterate silk with jute. It has a lustrous, silky appearance, and the fraud is not easily detected. A recent English writer in the *Technologist* says that, thanks to jute, there is scarcely a piece of sound genuine silk woven in the country, and the consequence is, that the so-called silk fabrics, instead of lasting from generation to generation—as they did in the times of our grandmothers and great-grandmothers—barely last the brief period of the latest new fashion. The reason of this is evident, for in preparing this fiber for the market, it is necessary to cause it to almost putrify in order to develop the fine silky character, so much valued in the jute intended for export. In India the cloth made from the fiber is much stronger and more durable, because they do not take such care in steeping it for home consumption. In URE's "*Philosophy of Manufacture*," (newest edition,) a writer says of jute "that it is mixed with the cotton warps of cheap broadcloths, and also with silk, and, from its lustre, can scarcely be detected." Why cannot jute be turned to more honorable and useful purposes than adulteration? Dr. FORBES WATSON says, that its "production admits of unlimited extension," and who knows but the great paper-rag and the cotton question may be somewhat solved by jute?—*Journal of Commerce.*

THE ADULTERATION OF TEA.

In the London *Lancet*, of August 10th, we find the result of the microscopical and chemical analysis of forty-eight samples of tea:

"Of the twenty-four specimens of black tea analyzed, every one was found to be *genuine;* of a like number of green teas, *all were adulterated.* The adulterations are mainly a coloring matter with which the tea leaf is faced, painted or glazed. Ferro-cyanide of iron, or Prussian blue, is the article most commonly used for this purpose. Sometimes, however, indigo, kaolin or China clay, and turmeric powder were found in addition. That species of tea which is denominated gunpowder is adulterated in other ways, by admixture with leaves not those of tea, with paddy husk, and particularly with 'lie tea,' so called, a leaf which resembles the tea leaf closely, and is sent to this country from China in vast quantities to be employed in adulterations here. The coloring of the tea is almost entirely done in China, and probably because it improves its appearance, and perhaps renders its sale more sure and rapid.

"Such is the result of a thorough analyzation of this article by eminent scientific men in England, and it is certainly not very flattering to the taste of those who drink green tea for the love of it. There is no *such article as unadulterated green tea.* Let the lovers of the herb remember that fact, and as they sip the delicious beverage and fancy they find in it a solvent for their aches and pains, let them also remember that they are sipping with it a solution of Prussian blue and indigo, as well

as sundry other little peccadilloes that neither add to its exhilarating properties, nor yet are entirely harmless to the system. On the other hand, the black teas are not adulterated, and are the only ones used by the Chinese. Knowing the impurities that are in the best green teas, they send them to foreign ports to tickle the delicate palates of the English, the French and the Americans, who, in their view, fancy the bright, lively appearance imparted by the coloring compositions they use.

"The remedy for these wholesale adulterations is easy. It is entirely in the hands of the tea merchants. If they refuse to buy the poisoned leaf, the Chinamen will very quickly stop adulterating it."

TRADE AND NAVIGATION OF GREAT BRITAIN IN 1860.

The annual statement of the trade and navigation of the United Kingdom with foreign countries and British possessions in the year 1860 has just been published in the form of a blue book, containing 468 pages. From the numerous statistical tables we gather the following information:

Imports and Exports.—The real value of the total imports and exports of merchandise during the last five years is as follows:—Imports, 1856, £172,544,154; 1857, £187,844,441; 1858, £164,583,382; 1859, £179,182,355; 1860, £210,530,873. Exports, 1856, £139,220,353; 1857, £146,174,301; 1858, £139,782,779; 1859, £155,692,975; 1860, £164,521,351.

Corn.—The quantity of wheat imported in 1860 was 5,880,958 quarters, being 1,879,036 quarters over the previous year. Of other kinds of corn and grain, 7,125,661 quarters were imported in 1860, and 5,317,761 quarters in 1859. 5,086,220 cwt. of wheat meal and flour was imported in 1860, and 71,343 cwt. of other kinds of meal and flour.

Cotton.—The quantity of raw cotton imported during 1856 and the four succeeding years was as follows:—1856, 9,141,842 cwt.; 1857, 8,654,633 cwt.; 1858, 9,235,198 cwt.; 1859, 10,946,331 cwt.; 1860, 12,419,096 cwt. During the same five years the quantity of cotton yarn imported was as follows:—1856, 1,116,226 lbs.; 1857, 956,652 lbs.; 1858, 799,827 lbs.; 1859, 962,097 lbs.; 1860, 1,002,872 lbs. In 1860, 148,296 pieces of cotton manufactures of India and China were imported, besides European cotton manufactures to the value of £685,059.

Silk.—The value of silk imported in 1860 was £10,241,748, being less than in the previous year, when the value was £10,377,042. Thrown silk exhibits a similar decrease; the value of the imports being £336,991 in 1860, and £526,773 in 1859. There is an increase, however, with regard to silk manufactures, the returns showing £3,343,761 in 1860, as compared with £2,763,379 in 1859.

Spirits.—The returns respecting the import of spirits exhibit the following results:—Value of brandy in 1859, £1,420,942; in 1860, £1,088,177. Geneva, 1859, £16,428; 1860, £16,428. Rum, 1859, £801,056; 1860, £757,981. Unenumerated spirits, not sweetened, 1859, £97,927; 1860; £90,073. Sweetened spirits of all kinds, 1859, £35,684; 1860, £53,555.

Tobacco.—The following is the value of the raw tobacco imported during the past five years:—1856, £1,080,672; 1857, £1,895,104;

1858, £2,230,323; 1859, £1,563,330; 1860, £1,494,517. The manufactured tobacco, segars and snuff imported during the same periods were of the following value:—1856, £243,490; 1857, £287,483; 1858, £300,516; 1859, £253,841; 1860, £283,201.

Shipping.—The number, tonnage and crews of registered vessels, distinguishing sailing and steam, were as follows:—36,164 sailing vessels, tonnage, 5,210,824 tons; steam vessels, 2,337, tonnage, 500,144 tons. Total number of vessels, 38,501; total tonnage, 5,710,968 tons; crews, 294,460.

THE LUMBER TRADE.

The lumber trade of this country, according to the Boston *Commercial Bulletin*, was for years confined to New-England, and particularly the present State of Maine. Within the past ten years the trade has greatly changed its direction, and within the past five years almost wholly. A well-written essay upon the causes and effects of this would be an interesting historical record. The home trade in lumber has pressed to the extremes—from the Penobscot to the great lakes. In 1851, a member of a firm in the lumber business, at Boston, conceived the idea of working Western and Canada lumber for the Boston market, a long experience having satisfied him that the forests of Maine would, in a short time, become essentially deficient in the supply of some of the most desirable qualities of lumber for building and shipping. To show what has been the result of this enterprise, we can state that the sales made by this firm, in the first year afterwards, (1852,) were not over three hundred and fifty thousand feet. Now they sell about *twenty-five millions* annually. The business has already outgrown the proportions of one concern, and there are others here who are engaged in the business as agents of Western and Canada houses.

This lumber now takes the precedence for shipping over all other kinds; its widths, its lengths and its adaptedness to carriage all excel the Eastern lumber. It is taken mostly from the forests of Michigan, Upper Canada and Western New-York, and is conveyed to the seaboard by way of the canals and the St. Lawrence, and by rail-road, *via* Ogdensburg and Burlington. The better qualities are sent in large quantities to the west coast of South America, California and Australia.

The traffic in Eastern lumber has decreased proportionately; where our old firms ten years since used to average a cargo per day from the Penobscot and Kennebec, they scarcely average a cargo per week.

It has been supposed by many that we were dependent on the South for hard pine, or rather that we could not find a substitute for hard pine. It is scarcely twenty years since that the first lot of common river sawed boards arrived in this city from Mobile, consigned to E. D. Peters & Co. The trade has grown since then. In 1845 the ship-builders of Boston sent out men all through the South to cut hard pine and oak for ship-building, and from this, and also from the fact that hard pine boards were generally accepted as the best for certain purposes, we have come to believe that we could not do without the Southern lumber. This is a mistake.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

I. Large Exports to Europe. II. Reduced Imports. III. Extraordinary Receipts of Grain at tide-water. IV. Appeal of the New-York Chamber of Commerce to the Canal Board, and their Response. V. General Imports and Exports. VI. Foreign Dry Goods. VII. Government Loan. VIII. Pacific Telegraph Completed.

The month of November has shown a marked change in the business features of New-York. A continued activity has prevailed in the export trade to foreign countries, showing, as general results, exclusive of specie:

	October, 1861.		*Ten months*, 1861.
Exports,.....	$ 13,157,000	....	$ 109,934,000
Imports,.....	10,201,000	....	141,754,000

The grain movement will form one of the extraordinary features of the year 1861, and contributes largely to the strength of the country in sustaining an expensive war. The aggregate receipts to 14th November at tide-water were as follow:

	Flour, barrels.	*Wheat, bushels.*	*Corn, bushels.*	*Barley, bushels.*
1860,.....	1,051,900 ..	15,771,600 ..	13,400,300 ..	2,393,000
1861,.....	1,221,200 ..	25,054,700 ..	20,559,600 ..	1,703,900

By reducing the wheat to flour, the quantity of the latter left at tide-water, this year, compared with the same period last year, shows a gain equal to 2,625,000 barrels of flour. The receipts at tide-water, since the opening of the canals, for three years, to the 14th November, have been as follow:

		1859.		1860.		1861.
Canals open,.....		*April* 15.		*April* 25.		*May* 1.
Flour,.....	barrels,	600,600 ..		1,051,900 ..		1,221,200
Wheat	bushels,	3,523,200 ..		15,771,600 ..		25,054,700
Corn.....	"	2,488,700 ..		13,409,300 ..		20,559,600
Barley,.....	"	1,909,200 ..		2,393,000 ..		1,703,900
Rye,.....	"	320,000 ..		304,500 ..		725,000
Oats,.....	"	4,697,500 ..		5,948,600 ..		4,806,200

In order to facilitate the grain movement of this State and of the West, the New-York Chamber of Commerce, on the 7th November forwarded a memorial to the Canal Commissioners at Albany, to maintain navigation to the latest moment this year. To this appeal the following response was made:

At a meeting of the Board of Canal Commissioners, held November 14, a resolution, of which the following is a copy, was adopted:

"*Resolved*, That the navigation of the canals of this State, for the present season, be continued to the latest possible period, with reasonable effort; and that to this end the several Canal Superintendents are required to see that the several repair contractors on their respective sections have prepared for use all necessary ice-breakers, and other tools and implements to aid navigation, as shall be directed by the commissioners in charge."

The foreign importations at the port of New-York, for the month of October, were about one-half the amount for the same time last year. The figures present singular features compared with October, 1857, when the amount entered for consumption was less, viz., $2,791,905, while for warehousing (under the vast pressure upon the money market) the amount was $7,356,424; free goods, $1,782,345; specie, $2,509,194.

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW-YORK IN OCTOBER, 1858—1861.

ENTERED.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
For consumption,..	$9,234,470 ..	$9,345,609 ..	$10,974,428 ..	$3,638,580
For warehousing,.	2,157,678 ..	2,194,258 ..	2,817,461 ..	2,082,381
Free goods,.....	2,061,468 ..	1,447,433 ..	1,911,515 ..	2,163,452
Specie and bullion,	89,368 ..	630,646 ..	1,083,838 ..	639,328
Total entered,...	$13,542,984 ..	$13,617,946 ..	$16,787,242 ..	$8,523,741
Withdrawn,.....	2,462,425 ..	2,740,892 ..	3,018,393 ..	2,518,080

The Custom-House returns show a total import of merchandise at this port, since January 1st, of one hundred and eight millions, against about two hundred millions for the corresponding ten months of last year. Of the imports during the last ten months only thirty-nine millions were in dry goods, leaving about sixty-nine millions of general merchandise. The specie item, it will be seen, is very important. The specie imports are more than double for the same period in the last four years:

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW-YORK FOR TEN MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

ENTERED.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
For consumption, .	$85,816,904 ..	$153,743,279 ..	$140,760,836 ..	$45,296,493
For warehousing, .	22,389,828 ..	30,546,026 ..	35,213,386 ..	36,575,280
Free goods,.....	18,613,563 ..	24,608,111 ..	23,380,578 ..	25,815,026
Specie and bullion,	2,110,541 ..	2,464,700 ..	2,231,471 ..	35,826,058
Total entered, ..	$128,930,836 ..	$211,362,116 ..	$201,586,271 ..	$143,512,857
Withdrawn, ...	33,560,002 ..	23,046,201 ..	28,260,420 ..	34,067,746

The foreign exports from New-York, exclusive of specie, for the month of October, exceeded thirteen million dollars, and were, therefore, more than fifty per cent. beyond the total imports for the same period. The grain and tobacco markets remain very active, and we may safely anticipate continued large receipts and exports to foreign countries for the remainder of the season.

EXPORTS FROM NEW-YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF OCTOBER.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Domestic produce,	$5,233,363 ..	$4,752,779 ..	$10,067,330 ..	$12,904,350
For. mdse., (free,)..	161,063 ..	252,878 ..	94,175 ..	60,868
For. mdse., (dut.,)..	359,185 ..	482,440 ..	394,753 ..	192,196
Specie and bullion,	3,028,405 ..	5,344,159 ..	2,106,395 ..	15,038
Total exports,..	$8,782,016 ..	$10,832,256 ..	$12,662,653 ..	$13,172,452
Total, ex. specie,	5,753,611 ..	5,488,097 ..	10,556,258 ..	13,157,414

The total exports of produce from the port since January 1st have been more than in any previous year. The specie export hasdeclined to a nominal sum. We annex the general results for the ten months, compared with three previous years. For the current year, thus far, the exports of domestic produce are more than double that of the same period in 1858 and 1859, the large excess of late being paid in specie.

EXPORTS FROM NEW-YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR TEN MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Domestic produce,	$46,767,981 ..	$48,223,748 ..	$73,594,650 ..	$103,464,788
For. mdse., (free,)..	1,286,624 ..	2,580,757 ..	2,077,302 ..	2,037,500
For. mdse., (dut.,)..	3,345,857 ..	3,930,108 ..	4,531,478 ..	4,332,275
Specie and bullion,	23,631,253 ..	63,270,614 ..	41,463,679 ..	3,294,852
Total exports,..	$75,031,715 ..	$118,005,227 ..	$121,667,109 ..	$113,129,415
Total, ex. specie,	51,400,462 ..	54,734,613 ..	80,203,430 ..	109,934,563

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW-YORK, JANUARY TO OCTOBER.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
First six months,..	$11,089,112 ..	$19,512,181 ..	$18,389,679 ..	$10,585,335
In July, ...	3,387,305 ..	4,851,246 ..	4,504,066 ..	2,069,591
In August, ...	3,545,119 ..	4,243,010 ..	4,496,243 ..	1,558,824
In September, ...	2,672,936 ..	2,908,509 ..	3,038,803 ..	1,642,382
In October, ...	2,054,834 ..	2,318,754 ..	2,632,078 ..	1,672,617
Total, 9 months,	$22,749,306 ..	$33,833,700 ..	$33,060,869 ..	$17,528,749

Messrs. TELLKAMPF & KITCHING, in their last wool circular, say: During the month of November the demand for wool was not as active as it was in the previous one. Low and medium domestic fleece have met with ready sale, however, at full rates, but of these qualities there is little to be had. Pulled wools have been sold up generally. An auction sale of 600,000 lbs. of fleece and pulled wool took place in Boston on the 19th ultimo, and while the prices of low and medium qualities were fully sustained, the fine wools, of which there was a large proportion, hardly brought the ruling prices at private sale.

The imports of dry goods in October were extremely limited, woollens being mainly the supply entered for consumption:

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW-YORK FOR THE MONTH OF OCTOBER.

Entered for Consumption.

MANUFACTURES OF	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool, ...	$1,008,686 ..	$1,421,850 ..	$1,452,145 ..	$1,032,389
Cotton, ...	529,125 ..	774,620 ..	482,349 ..	125,168
Silk, ...	1,364,921 ..	1,155,513 ..	1,789,238 ..	315,563
Flax, ...	415,830 ..	625,838 ..	415,214 ..	207,344
Miscellaneous, ...	226,528 ..	241,175 ..	474,404 ..	41,209
Total, ...	$3,545,090 ..	$4,218,996 ..	$4,613,330 ..	$1,721,673

A large amount of goods were warehoused in July, August and September. These are gradually being withdrawn. The withdrawals, it will be seen, are treble those of October last year:

Withdrawn from Warehouse in October.

MANUFACTURES OF	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool, ...	$300,980 ..	$147,508 ..	$196,448 ..	$515,040
Cotton, ...	64,094 ..	57,924 ..	51,308 ..	130,439
Silk, ...	54,498 ..	28,843 ..	38,677 ..	200,169
Flax, ...	72,534 ..	38,240 ..	43,081 ..	89,037
Miscellaneous, ...	75,730 ..	29,516 ..	19,599 ..	21,514
Total, ...	$567,836 ..	$302,031 ..	$349,133 ..	$956,199
For consumption,..	3,545,090 ..	4,218,996 ..	4,613,350 ..	1,721,673
Total on market,	$4,112,926 ..	$4,521,027 ..	$4,962,483 ..	$2,677,872

The reduced supplies of goods on the market forbid the entry of any fresh quantities for warehousing. The following are the results for the month of October:

Entered for Warehousing, October, 1858—1861.

Manufactures of	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,	$94,022 ..	$154,132 ..	$330,903 ..	$58,071
Cotton,	78,761 ..	119,899 ..	199,871 ..	75,734
Silk,	44,216 ..	53,051 ..	64,275 ..	74,601
Flax,	80,506 ..	110,966 ..	66,070 ..	37,323
Miscellaneous,	51,266 ..	55,749 ..	53,438 ..	4,139
Total,	$348,771 ..	$493,797 ..	$714,557 ..	$249,868
For consumption,	3,545,090 ..	4,218,996 ..	4,613,350 ..	1,721,673
Entered at port,	$3,893,861 ..	$4,712,793 ..	$5,327,907 ..	$1,971,541

Upon a review of the dry goods trade for the year, it appears that the entries for consumption are less than one-fourth those of the same period of ten months in 1859, and but little in excess of those of 1860; the following are the results:

Imports of Foreign Dry Goods at the Port of New-York for Ten Months.

Entered for Consumption.

Manufactures of	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,	$14,899,522 ..	$29,797,207 ..	$27,693,715 ..	$8,268,143
Cotton,	8,087,121 ..	19,640,906 ..	12,984,731 ..	2,969,667
Silk,	15,824,483 ..	28,631,919 ..	30,756,897 ..	7,685,873
Flax,	3,775,793 ..	8,715,678 ..	5,785,345 ..	1,724,893
Miscellaneous,	2,924,698 ..	4,936,479 ..	5,412,817 ..	1,779,797
Total,	$45,511,617 ..	$91,722,189 ..	$82,633,505 ..	$22,428,373

On the other hand, the large amounts withdrawn from warehousing make the total on the market about forty-four per cent. of the same period last year:

Withdrawn from Warehouse, ten months.

Manufactures of	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,	$4,804,226 ..	$2,578,390 ..	$3,086,061 ..	$5,905,498
Cotton,	3,344,757 ..	1,404,902 ..	2,310,803 ..	3,879,357
Silk,	3,119,963 ..	796,003 ..	1,469,286 ..	4,581,805
Flax,	1,940,560 ..	880,313 ..	751,946 ..	1,665,965
Miscellaneous,	1,212,109 ..	354,466 ..	519,123 ..	715,281
Total,	$13,921,615 ..	$6,014,074 ..	$8,137,219 ..	$16,747,406
For consumption,	45,511,617 ..	91,752,189 ..	82,633,505 ..	22,428,373
Total on market,	$59,433,232 ..	$97,736,263 ..	$90,770,724 ..	$39,175,779

Entered for Warehousing, ten months.

Manufactures of	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,	$2,003,664 ..	$3,040,185 ..	$3,270,768 ..	$5,635,899
Cotton,	1,726,791 ..	1,383,908 ..	2,359,275 ..	3,806,670
Silk,	1,076,773 ..	787,544 ..	1,374,788 ..	4,986,950
Flax,	808,779 ..	800,296 ..	494,900 ..	1,396,674
Miscellaneous,	535,150 ..	436,628 ..	554,208 ..	870,978
Total,	$6,151,157 ..	$6,448,561 ..	$8,053,939 ..	$16,697,171
For consumption,	45,511,617 ..	91,722,189 ..	82,633,505 ..	22,428,373
Entered at port,	$51,662,774 ..	$98,170,750 ..	$90,687,555 ..	$39,125,544

The chief financial item of the month of November has been the successful negotiation of the third instalment of the government loan to the extent of fifty millions of dollars, making in all one hundred and fifty millions of dollars, through the joint action of the banks of New-York, Boston and Philadelphia. The third instalment will be in the shape of six per cent. government bonds, repayable in twenty years, at a price equivalent to a seven per cent. stock; the banks having the option of taking the remaining fifty millions not yet negotiated.

Since our last number went to press, the completion of the telegraphic line from New-York to San Francisco, *via* St. Louis, has been announced. The following despatch, addressed to the Mayor of this city, came over the wires recently direct from San Francisco:

"SAN FRANCISCO, *October* 25.

"*To the Mayor of New-York:*

"San Francisco to New-York sends greetings, and congratulates her on the completion of the enterprise which connects the Pacific with the Atlantic. May the prosperity of both cities be increased thereby, and the projectors of this important work meet with honor and reward.

"H. F. TESCHEMACHER, *Mayor of San Francisco.*"

Mayor WOOD sent the following reply:

"*To the Mayor of San Francisco:*

"New-York returns her greetings to San Francisco. Let the Union thus so happily consummated between them ever remain unimpaired.

"The Union forever—whether between the East and the West, or the North and the South—let it be continued and preserved.

"FERNANDO WOOD, *Mayor.*"

It is stated that the next westward extension of the line will be by the way of Behrings Straits to the mouth of the Amoor River, to which point the Russian government is already constructing a line commencing at Moscow.

B. P. JOHNSON, Esq., of Albany, is chairman of the Executive Committee of the United States Commissioners appointed by the President of the United States to supervise the American part of the great exhibition in London in 1862. It is highly desirable that our country should be adequately represented, under the rule:

"Her Majesty's Commissioners will communicate *only through* the commission which the government of each foreign country may appoint; *and no article will be admitted from any foreign country without the sanction of such commission.*"

The articles exhibited will be divided into five classes:

Class 1. Mineral, chemical and pharmaceutical substances and products, food, wines, animal and vegetable substances used in manufactures. 2. Railways, carriages, machines, engineering, naval architecture, philosophical, musical and surgical instruments. 3. Cotton, flax, hemp, wool, silk, fabrics, skins and leather, clothing, paper, stationery, educational appliances, furniture, hardware, iron, steel, cutlery, metals, glass and pottery. 4. Modern art, architecture, sculpture, painting, etching and engraving, &c.

Prizes in the form of medals will be given in sections 1, 2 and 3, but none in No. 4.

Executive Committee, office in the Department of the Interior, Washington, (No. 10 Patent Office Building:)

B. P. JOHNSON, *Chairman*, Prof. JOS. HENRY,
J. R. PARTRIDGE, *Secretary*, W. W. SEATON,
J. C. G. KENNEDY.

By recent arrangements the postage chargeable upon letters for Penang, Singapore, Hong Kong, and all other parts of China, Japan, Java, the Phillippine Islands, Labuan, Borneo, Siam, Sumatra and the Moluccas, posted in the United States for transmission *via* the United Kingdom, will hereafter be 45 cents the single rate of half an ounce or under, when directed *via* Southampton, and 51 cents the quarter ounce, or 57 cents the half-ounce letter when directed *via* Marseilles, pre-payment compulsory.

In relation to the Canadian rail-roads, the Cincinnati *Gazette* remarks:

"We understand that the formation of a grand railway combination between Canadian rail-roads is in progress, which is to comprise the Grand Trunk, Great Western and Buffalo and Lake Huron Railways. The plan, as far as matured, seems to be to include into the scheme that portion of the Grand Trunk west of Toronto only, and has for its principal object the discontinuance of a hurtful competition for freight. The triple combination will be under the control of Mr. J. C. BRYDGES, and it is probable that his visit to England at this time is not unconnected with the matter. The natural effect will be to increase the price of freight, and to this extent it will be antagonistic to the interests of the grain producers. Yet it must be remembered that the railways, and especially the Grand Trunk, have frequently carried through freight at a positive loss to the company, and that as it is not impossible that such a state of things should last for any lengthened period, the formation of the union is not a matter for surprise."

An informal meeting of dry goods merchants having claims against Southerners, was held at the Astor House in November, when it was stated that the object of the meeting was for the consideration of some plan by which they might induce the President and Congress to provide for the interests of Northern merchants whose debts have been confiscated by the rebel government, and stated at length the losses which have been incurred by the merchants of the North, the manner in which their debts due had been confiscated, and the necessity for some decided action to be taken by the federal government to secure indemnity. A resolution was adopted, appointing a committee of five to draft a memorial to the President of the United States, asking him to request of Congress to provide some way in which to collect Southern debts. The committee consisted of Messrs. JAFFRAY, CLAFLIN, CLEVELAND, SMYTHE and WOODWARD, who are to procure the signatures of merchants to the memorial.

A memorial to the President of the United States, on the same subject, was adopted by the Chamber of Commerce at their monthly meeting, November 7th.

A meeting of merchants was held at New-York, early in November, to discuss the policy of passing a general bankrupt law by the Thirty-Seventh Congress. The sense of the meeting, as well as of our merchants generally, is in favor of the passage of such a law.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE

OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

LONDON, *November* 8, 1861.

THE money market of London presents a singular contrast with that of Paris. While in that city the difficulty of negotiating time bills is increasing, the rates at this commercial centre are more favorable than a month ago. Prime bills, at short dates, have been taken this week as low as 2½ @ 2⅝ per cent. We now find the rates among the brokers to be:

At thirty days,	2½	@	2⅝ per cent.
At sixty days,	2⅝	@	2⅞ "
At three months,	2¾	@	3 "
At four "	3	@	3¼ "
At six "	3½	@	5 "

In the Continental markets the range is a wide one, viz.:

	Bk. Rates, per cent.		*Op. Mkt. per cent.*		*Bk. Rates, per cent.*		*Op. Mkt. per cent.*
Paris,	6	..	5½	Turin,	6½	..	6½
Vienna,	6	..	5	Brussels,	4	..	3½
Berlin,	4	..	3¼	Hamburg,	–	..	3¼
Frankfort,	4	..	3½	St. Petersburg,	7	..	3
Amsterdam,	3	..	3				

It is rumored from Paris that the negotiation of the Bank of France with London capitalists has had only a temporary effect as to relief, and that the bank has opened a correspondence with the Bank of Prussia for a sum equivalent to £2,250,000. At Paris also prevails a rumor that M. FOULD is likely to become Minister of Finance, and that his first move will be to bring forward a public loan to the extent of 500 million francs, or (in round numbers) twenty millions sterling. France may require even more than this.

The inquiry is made why higher prices do not prevail now, with such ample supplies of capital, than early in the year, when the market rate of discount was almost equivalent to a panic. The contrast in the rates of money does not mark the rates for public securities, viz.:

	February, 1861. *Bk. Rate*, 8 *p. ct.*		*November*, 1861. *Bk. Rate*, 3 *p. ct.*
3 per cent. Consols, cash,	92⅛ @ 92¼	..	92¼ @ 92⅜
" " account,	91⅝ @ 91⅞	..	93⅝ @ 93¾
New 3 per cents,	91⅝ @ 91⅞	..	91⅞ @ 92
3 per cents, reduced,	91⅝ @ 91⅞	..	91⅞ @ 92

The numerous fluctuations of the Bank of England in their rates of discount have been prejudicial to the commercial community. The reduction to 2½ and 3 per cent. in 1859, when the bullion reserve was

nineteen millions sterling, or five millions in excess of the present amount, was one of several causes which led to the reaction of 1860. In April, 1860, the rate again reached 5 per cent., and in February, 1861, eight per cent. The bank, from its ample resources, should hold in check the constant tendency to overtrading, and be at all times above the mere inducements of profit, and forego temporary advantages in order to maintain a consistent movement in commerce.

The excitement in the Liverpool cotton market is still on the increase, and prices are advancing daily. The total sales of last week amount to 146,000 bales, including 51,000 to spinners. Annexed are the exports of cotton from Bombay during August, as well as for the eight months ending August 31, the latter compared with the three previous years:

	Gt. Brit. bales.	*Cowes, &c. for orders, bales.*	*For Europe, bales.*	*China, &c., bales.*	*Total bales.*
Total for August,.....	39,738½ ..	.... ..	2,200 ..	....	41,938½
Previously exp'd this yr,.	717,132½ ..	18,560½ ..	6,226½ ..	54,656½ ..	796,576
Total for eight mos.,	756,871 ..	18,560½ ..	8,426½ ..	54,656½ ..	838,514½
Exp'd same time, 1860,..	329,931 ..	2,701 ..	12,413½ ..	164,367½ ..	509,413
do. do. 1859,..	390,907 ..	22,720 ..	21,569 ..	97,907 ..	533,103
do. do. 1858,..	223,702 ..	13,993 ..	19,542 ..	76,060 ..	333,297

From bankers we learn that of the bills maturing on Monday, the 4th, a rather larger number were returned than usual, but they were subsequently met, and no permanent case of embarrassment occurred.

By letters we learn the stoppage of the old-established Riga banking house of W. L. Schreluchin & Son, with moderate liabilities. The estate is expected to pay nearly in full, or at least a high dividend.

A report prevails of a suspension, with heavy liabilities, in the metal trade at Paris, where of late considerable speculation in copper, &c., has been going on.

The advices from Buenos Ayres mention the failure of the native house of Delphino & Co., with liabilities of about £160,000. A small portion of the loss will probably fall upon English establishments. The estate, it is feared, will turn out unfavorably. In consequence of this suspension, Messrs. Deihl, Fernan & Co. have also stopped payment.

An influential local committee has been formed at Cambridge, England, for the purpose of successfully carrying out the approaching meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science at that town next year. The gathering will be held later in the season than usual, and will not take place till the first week in October.

Mr. C. P. Melly, a Liverpool merchant, better known as "Fountain Melly," was presented, on Wednesday, with a silver épergne or candelabrum, valued at £1,000, as a token of the estimation in which he is held by his fellow-townsmen, rich and poor, on account of his public spirit and liberality in the erection of numerous drinking-fountains throughout the town. The plate bore an inscription which alluded to the gifts of a free play-ground and wayside benches, which Mr. Milly has also made to the town.

Contrasted with the close of October, 1860, the position of the London and Paris money markets is reversed. Then there was in London an active demand for money, and the Bank of England raised their rate of discount from 4 to 4½ per cent., while in Paris the current rate of discount was 3 per cent. At that time the Mires loan in behalf of Turkey was pending.

The following is a comprehensive table, affording a comparative view of the Bank of England returns, the bank rate of discount, the price of Consols, the price of wheat, and the leading exchanges, during a period of four years, corresponding with the first week in November as well as ten years back, viz., in 1851 :

	1851.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Bank of England—					
Circulation,	£21,850,000	£21,836,000	£22,692,000	£22,097,000	£21,575,000
Public deposits,	6,086,000	6,673,000	6,097,000	4,968,000	4,940,000
Other deposits,	9,549,000	12,290,000	14,311,000	13,114,000	13,515,000
Government securities,	13,241,000	10,808,000	10,875,000	9,490,000	11,712,000
Other securities,	12,215,000	14,697,000	13,649,000	12,963,000	16,460,000
Reserve of notes and coin,	9,138,000	11,988,000	9,500,000	7,166,000	8,067,000
Coin and bullion,	15,259,000	18,502,000	16,880,000	13,897,000	14,210,000
Bank rate of discount,	3 per ct.	3 per ct.	2½ per ct.	4½ per ct.	3 per ct.
Price of Consols,	98⅜	98¼	96¼	93¼	93¼
Average price of wheat,	38s. 1d.	42s. 8d.	42s. 9d.	50s. 9d.	50s. 5d.
Exchange on Paris, (short,)	25 17½	25 5	25 7½	25 15	25 20
Amsterdam, (short,)	11 16½	11 15	11 13	11 14½	11 13
Hamburg, (3 mos.),	13 10½	13 7	13 5	13 5¾	13 6¾

Yet, with a specie reserve four millions below that of October, 1858, and with existing circumstances which may produce a revulsion in commercial and financial affairs of England and the continent, the bank has this week reduced its rate of discount one-half of one per cent., or from 3½, which was the established rate on 19th September, to 3 per cent. France is at this moment a large borrower, and the stability of her financial institutions may, before the end of the year, depend upon the ability of the Bank of England to maintain it.

Earl Russell's reply to a letter addressed to him officially by Mr. Henry W. Hayman, of Liverpool, relative to the American blockade of Southern ports, unqualifiedly states that if any British ship, being a neutral, knowingly attempts to break an effective blockade, she is liable to capture and condemnation. If such ship defends herself by force against a national vessel enforcing such blockade, such defence is a breach of the law of nations, and will expose the ship and cargo to condemnation as prize.

The British Board of Trade returns for the month and nine months ending September 30th, 1861, have been issued. We subjoin a statement of the total declared value of the British and Irish produce and manufactures during the month and for nine months in the last three years:

Year.	*For the Month.*	*For nine Months.*
1859,	£ 11,631,426	£ 98,037,311
1860,	13,646,454	101,724,346
1861,	11,220,206	93,795,332

The exports of the month were less by £2,426,248, or 18 per cent., than in the same month of last year, and less by £411,220, or 3½ per cent., than in September, 1859. The figures for the nine months show a decrease of £7,029,014, or 7½ per cent., compared with 1860, and a decrease of £4,241,979, or 4 per cent., compared with 1859.

Of the increasing trade of the Gold Coast, the *West African Herald* says: "The palm oil season has been glorious. In some towns in the eastern districts there is actually more oil than traders can take, and yet enormous prices are given for it. The Dromo sailed for London from

Accra on the 20th of July, with a cargo of 45,000 galls. of palm oil and a ton and a half of gum. On the 21st BRYN-Y-MOR, belonging to the same firm as the DROMO, (F. & A. SWANZY,) left Accra with another cargo of 45,000 gallons of palm oil. On the 22d the KEDAR sailed from Accra for Salem, Massachusetts, United States, with 85,000 gallons of oil. Thus, within three days, three vessels left from one port with 175,000 gallons of oil, all the produce of the Gold Coast. We do not hear of much corn or ground nuts shipped or contracted for. Very little encouragement has been given to the development of the corn and ground nuts trade of late."

Of the general results of the cotton trade for the nine months of the year, Messrs. STOTTERFORT, SON & Co. report in their circular that "the imports from the United States show a deficiency of 500,000 bales against last year, but from the East Indies there is an increase of 163,000 bales, reducing the deficiency (with some of the minor descriptions) on the whole to 353,000 bales. In the total supply that deficiency is still further reduced to 333,000 bales in American, or to 142,000 bales of all descriptions, in consequence of a larger stock having been held at the beginning of the year than the previous one. The deliveries show an excess of 146,000 bales, of which 23,000 bales Surat were burned in London. The stocks are reduced by 334,000 bales in American, or by 280,000 bales in all descriptions. They are, however, still largely in excess of former years, and, considering that the spinners everywhere are stocked to an unusual extent, there would be no cause for any anxiety if we could hope for an early renewal of the imports from the United States. We would estimate such excess held by the spinners above their usual quantity at fully 150,000 bales, and that would increase the available stock to 1,150,000 bales."

Intelligence has been received of the completion of the Malta and Alexandria cable. The whole length of this line is 1,300 miles, having intermediate stations at Tripoli and Benghazi. Arrangements are now nearly completed for working this line, and it is expected it will be open to the public by the end of October, when communication with India and China will be expedited thirteen days.

It is announced that the proprietors of the steamship GREAT EASTERN will be called upon for a further contribution, in the sum of twenty-five thousand pounds, to meet the repairs and extraordinary expenses of the ship, and that she will again, and before long, take her departure for New-York or some other port in America.

The public mind is much occupied with the joint expedition on the part of Spain, France and England against Mexico, to compel restitution for insults given and damages sustained.

The building in which the great International Exhibition of 1862 is to be held is progressing with rapidity. As the details become more public from the progress of the work, it is regarded more and more as a great highly popular measure. The committee are already marking out the various allotments of space. It is stated that the Emperor and Empress of the French will not only visit the Exhibition, but also take a tour to several of the principal towns and cities in the country, soon after the opening of the new building.

Advices from Chili give information that a law has passed the Chambers to double the sinking fund for the 4½ per cent. loan, contracted in 1858 through Messrs. BARING BROTHERS.

RAIL-ROAD AND TELEGRAPH STATISTICS.

I. East India Railway. II. An Important Rail-Road Decision. III. The New Field Telegraph. IV. New Telegraph Lines.

EAST INDIA RAILWAY.

The Brahminee bridge is one of the largest structures on the newly-opened portion of the railway between Cynthia and Rajmehal. It consists of nine iron girders, of sixty feet span, and seven brick arches, of thirty feet span each. The total length from abutment to abutment is 950 feet.

The height from the bottom of the foundation to rail level is about forty feet, and the height of rail level above the bed of the river is about thirty feet. This bridge was originally intended to consist of twenty-four semi-circular brick arches, the river piers to be founded on undersunk wells. The foundations of both abutments and piers were got in in accordance with this design; but the difficulty of procuring bricks within a reasonable time (owing to a scarcity of fuel, which had to be carted from Raneegunge, a distance of seventy miles) induced a modification of the original design. This was, therefore, altered to a substitution of iron girders for brick arches. The undersunk well foundations were also dispensed with, as it was found, during prosecution of the works, that, by the employment of Appold's centrifugal pumps, worked by portable engines, the water could be kept under so as to admit of the sand being excavated, and the piers founded upon the clay. This turned out to be a more expeditious and satisfactory method than the slow and tedious process of well-sinking, in our opinion a rather questionable idea for general adoption in the construction of foundations in this country. The whole of the river piers were got in to above flood level in one season by the employment of four Appold's pumps, worked by four small portable agricultural engines, whereas it is doubtful whether otherwise the wells would have been completed in two seasons. The bridge is the highest on the line between Calcutta and Rajmehal. Its great height gives it a light and airy appearance, and altogether the structure forms one of the most attractive engineering features on the newly opened line. The work was carried on under the superintendence of Mr. Perry, district engineer, ably assisted by Mr. Powell, resident engineer, and who, we have been informed, has since joined the government service, and has been selected to construct the large bridge on the Grand Trunk Road over the Barrucker River. We have no doubt Mr. Powell's energetic and vigorous supervision will soon become apparent on his new undertaking, and that this great work, which has long been almost standing still from some causes or other, will be rapidly completed, with credit to himself and to the complete satisfaction of the government of India.—*Calcutta Engineer.*

AN IMPORTANT RAIL-ROAD DECISION.

The Court of Appeals of New-York, the highest tribunal in that State, has just rendered a decision that a rail-road company running an engine through a village where wooden buildings are so near the track as to be exposed to fire from the sparks, is bound to a higher degree of care than when running in the open country.

When the exposure of the buildings is increased by reason of a wind blowing towards them from the engine, which is standing at rest upon the track, the corporation is responsible for the utmost vigilance and care.

Under such circumstances, and after the law had been stated in effect as above, an instruction to the jury that the plaintiff could not recover if the engine was in good order, of proper construction and used with ordinary care, was properly refused.

The owner of an unfinished building thus exposed is bound to the use of such care as a man of ordinary prudence would employ under the circumstances; but does not forfeit his right to redress for the wrongful negligence of another, because he might have escaped injury by a higher vigilance on his own part.

Whether the leaving a door partly open, through which sparks from the engine flew—door being a part of the house then in course of construction and under the hands of the builders—was culpable negligence on the part of the owner or his servants, is a question which may properly be referred to the jury as one of fact.

THE NEW FIELD TELEGRAPH.

Engineer RODGERS, of New-York, has put in operation his newly-invented telegraphic cordage or insulated line, for field operations, and it proved eminently successful, giving entire satisfaction in the manner in which it operated. It is run off reels upon the ground with great rapidity, (as required for instant use,) across streams, through woods, or over any localities. Lines were yesterday, in extraordinary short time, thus laid between the headquarters of General MCDOWELL and two or three of his most advanced camps, and were worked in immediate connection with the telegraph station in the War Department. It is worthy of note that the heaviest artillery may run over this RODGERS' cordage without damaging its effectiveness in the least. It differs in many respects from the field telegraph used by LOUIS NAPOLEON in the Italian war, and embraces many advantages of convenient and certain operation under any possible circumstances over that (LOUIS NAPOLEON'S) which contributed so signally to the success of the French arms.—*Washington Star.*

NEW TELEGRAPH LINES.

The telegraph cable between London and the Ajaccio, on the island of Corsica, has been successfully laid over a length of 205 miles, and an average of 1,500 fathoms in depth.

The wires of the new telegraph line from Boston to Washington are laid already to Providence. The line is constructed by the Independent Telegraph Company, consists of three wires, and is what is called a metallic circuit. The wires may be fastened to trees or any convenient object, or pass through water without impairing their efficiency, and they cannot be tapped to take away what is passing.

THE BOOK TRADE.

I. *A History of American Manufactures from* 1608 *to* 1860, *exhibiting the Origin and Growth of the Principal Mechanic Arts and Manufactures, from the Earliest Colonial Period to the Adoption of the Constitution, and comprising Annals of the Industry of the United States in Machinery, Manufactures and Useful Arts, with a notice of the Important Inventions, Tariffs, and the results of each Decennial Census.* By J. LEANDER BISHOP, M. D. *To which are added notes on the principal manufacturing centres and remarkable manufactories of the present time.* Vol. 1, octavo, pp. 642. EDWARD YOUNG & Co., Philadelphia.

This is a work that has long been wanted. It is the record of American industry carried down to the beginning of the present century, showing how the foundations were laid, and who laid them, of a yearly business now amounting to over eleven hundred millions of dollars, and employing a capital of over five hundred millions. This book shows how States become rich, and alludes to enterprises, mines, &c., that have been abandoned, but which, with modern appliances, might be made to yield fortunes.

Mr. BISHOP'S work includes a sketch of the industrial resources and pursuits of every State in the Union. The ship-building interest of Maine, Massachusetts, New-York, Maryland, &c., from the year 1650 to this period, finds an ample record. The grist and saw mills of New-York, the coal mines of Pennsylvania, the cotton mills of Rhode Island, &c., find their reliable history here. The work is also full of accurate historical and statistical details as to the important subjects of bark mills, barley and malt, beer, ale and porter, bounties and premiums, brass, iron, copper, lead and other metals, linens, woollens, cottons, flax and hemp, fire-arms, furs, grain, furnaces, gas, granite, gunpowder, glass, hides and skins, hops, hosiery, leather, liquors, lumber, machines, mines, mills, minerals, paper, prices of labor, pianofortes, rail-roads and rolling mills, salt, shoes, silks and steel, &c.

Vast labor and research have been necessary in the compilation of this volume, and, as a national work, of inestimable value to all interested in the triumphs of American genius and the material progress of our country, should find a place in every library, public or private.

The work is peculiarly rich in its historical and statistical details as to the City and the State of New-York; their early ship-building, textile arts, newspapers, mills, mines, leather and metallic manufactures, &c. New-York took the earliest measures to arrest the excessive importations of British goods. As early as the year 1764, a society was established in New-York "for the promotion of arts, agriculture and economy." At that early day they had committees on the arts, on agriculture, on schemes of economy, and offered premiums for various articles of manufactures. Premiums were awarded for the best specimens of hemp and flax, linen cloth, wove stockings, sole leather, shoes, gloves. Medals were announced for the first flax mill, stocking looms, &c. The first vessel built in New-York was in the year 1614, in which vessel the captain two years after discovered the Schuylkill River. Our merchants and manufacturers should read and consult this valuable work in order to find out the origin of the great articles of commerce, and especially the results of labor in the Empire State.

II. *Comparative Table, No.* 1, *of the Exports, Imports and Revenues of all the Countries of the Globe, with a sketch of their respective Productions, Agricultural, Mineral and of Manufactures; comprising, also, a Summary Account of their Commerce, Coins and Moneys; of their Rulers and Predominant Religion.* Carefully compiled by Dr. K. PETER REEHORST, Professor and Translator, author of the "*Mariners' Friend,*" in ten modern languages. 3 Cowper's Court, Cornhill, London.

III. *Comparative Table, No.* 2, *of the Returns of Population, Territorial Extents or Area, the Armies and Navies of all the Countries of the Globe, with their different National Colors, Flags, Standards and Cockades, as shown in the last twelve months.* Carefully compiled by Dr. K. PETER REEHORST.

IV. *Statistical Abstract for the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, in each of the fifteen years, ending 31st December,* 1846 *to* 1860.

The tabular information in this parliamentary document relates to revenue and expenditures, imports and exports, bullion, shipping, coinage, Savings Banks, Bank of England, population and grain.

*** The preceding four works have been deposited in the library of the Chamber of Commerce, New-York, where they may be examined by members.

V. *Seasons with the Sea-Horses; or, Sporting Adventures in the Northern Seas.* By James Lamont, Esq., F. G. S. 8vo., pp. 282, with a map and eight engravings. Harper & Brothers, New-York.

This work opens with a trip to Spitzbergen, followed by descriptions of the walrus, the seal, the hippopotamus, &c., and hunts for bears, foxes, deer and whales. The volume contains spirited drawings of the author's yacht, the walrus, seal-shooting, bears and cubs, reindeer, &c.

VI. *Eighty Years Progress of the United States. Showing the various channels of Industry and Education through which the People of the United States have arisen from a British Colony to their present National Importance, giving, in a historical form, the vast improvements made in Agriculture, Commerce and Manufactures, with a large amount of Statistical Information. By eminent literary men, who have made the subject their study.* Illustrated by 220 engravings of the first order. L. S. Stebbins, Worcester, Mass., 51 John St., New-York.

The first eighty years of the national existence were illustrated by no brilliant military exploits, such as for the most part make up the history of most countries of the Old World, but the American people did not the less on that account assume a marked character, and a first rank among the nations of the earth. Their success in ship-building and commerce at once placed them on a level with the greatest maritime nations. The inventive genius and untiring industry of the people soon revolutionized the manufacturing industry of the world, by the ready application of new mechanical powers to industrial arts; and if the extent and cheapness of land for a time supplied the scarcity of labor in agricultural departments, it did not prevent the multiplication of inventions, which have not only added immensely to home production, but have greatly aided that of European countries. The development of these industries forms the true history of American greatness, and the work of Mr. Stebbins has given a world of information upon each branch of the subject, in a most authentic and attractive form. The chapters on ship-building, commerce and internal transportation present to the reader a mass of valuable information as astonishing for the magnitude of the results produced as interesting in the narrative. We know of no other work which, in the compass of two handsome volumes, contains such varied and comprehensive instruction of a perfectly reliable character. They form almost a complete library in themselves.

VII. *Reports of Cases Argued and Determined in the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts.* By Horace Gray, Jr. Vol. 13. Boston: Little, Brown & Company.

We are much pleased to receive another volume of Gray's Massachusetts Reports. This volume is not only invaluable in Massachusetts, but in every other State, as decisions made in her courts are cited everywhere as the highest authority. In our opinion, also, these decisions should not be thought of service to, or studied by lawyers alone. It has been too much our custom to call State reports law books, and to consider them, therefore, as of little general use. Yet they are filled with clear and authoritative expositions of every-day transactions, the study of which cannot but benefit every one. We see, for instance, in this volume, many important commercial points discussed, and many contracts explained, any of which might arise in the every-day experience of any merchant.

Yet we would not convey the idea that every man should be his own lawyer any more than that every man should be his own doctor. Those who have made the study of law their profession are, of course, best able to explain its knotty points. But a certain knowledge of law is as necessary to every merchant, who would safely conduct his own business, as a knowledge of the simplest laws of health is to one who would enjoy this greatest blessing of life. This necessary knowledge, we insist, therefore, can best, and perhaps we should say only, be obtained, by studying the reports of decisions of the highest of our several State courts, for there the meaning of statutes, contracts and every mercantile transaction is explained and clearly stated.

VIII. *The Statutes at Large, and Treaties of the United States of America, passed at the first Session of the Thirty-Seventh Congress*, 1861, *and carefully collated with the originals at Washington.* Edited by GEORGE P. SANGER, Counsellor at Law. Boston: LITTLE, BROWN & COMPANY.

To the lawyer, editor, and all who have occasion to refer to the acts of Congress, this work is of great importance, it being arranged in a very convenient form for reference, with a copious index, too often omitted from similar works.

IX. *Framley Parsonage; a novel by* ANTHONY TROLLOPE, *author of "Dr.* THORNE," *"The Bertrams," &c.* HARPER & BROTHERS, Publishers, New-York.

There seems to be a wide diversity of opinion regarding Mr. TROLLOPE's last novel, many of its readers being loud in their praises, while others declare themselves unable to accomplish the perusal of it. Without taking the part of either Framleyites or anti-Framleyites, we can assert that the book is quite out of the ordinary run of novels, and has a decided character of its own. The narrative is chiefly concerning the feuds and friendships of politicians, and the distresses consequent upon money-borrowing and money-lending. In this respect we think it capable of exerting a salutary influence; not upon the borrowing public, for an inveterate borrower is incorrigible, but a few of the poor, dear, indiscreet lenders may still be reclaimable, and to them we heartily commend it.

X. SILAS MARNER, *The Weaver of Raveloe.* By GEORGE ELIOT, author of "ADAM BEDE," "Mill on the Floss," &c. New-York: HARPER & BROTHERS, Publishers.

SILAS MARNER cannot approach "ADAM BEDE" or the "Mill on the Floss," in point of merit, yet there is an originality and life about the writings of Miss EVANS, (or of Mr. ELIOT, as she seems to prefer being called,) which must make any book interesting. Secret Sin and Self-Expiation are the abiding topics with this author. We find them everywhere, in various stages of development, and in SILAS MARNER they flourish in full blossom. The most charming thing in the whole story is the transfer of the wretched miser's affection from his heap of gold to the orphan baby, who creeps to his door through the winter storm. The difference between the love of money, so hardening in its effects, and the love for the helpless sweet-eyed baby, so humanizing and so tender in all its influences, is beautifully told and strongly contrasted.

XI. *The Recreations of a Country Parson.* Second series. Boston: TICKNOR & FIELDS.

Every one ought to read the "Recreations." Since ADDISON delighted his silver-buckled cotemporaries, and LAMB charmed his more modern ago with the essays of ELIA, there has been no such essayist as the Country Parson. His writings are so wise that they teach us, so playful that they amuse us, and so hearty and simple in their love towards God and our neighbor, that they make the warm heart warmer, and transform the cynic into a philanthropist. He has given us a book for every nation, for every community, for every fireside, for every individual, and none should fail to read it.

We have received from the American Tract Society, 28 Cornhill, Boston, the following:

1. *Missionary Life in Persia; being glimpses at a quarter of a century of labors among the Nestorian Christians.* By Rev. JUSTIN PERKINS, D. D. With illustrations. 8vo., pp. 250.

This little volume contains a very interesting account of the missionary labors of Mr. PERKINS and others in Persia, during the past thirty years, since the origin of the mission; the state of the field, the opposition of Mohammedans, and the joyful reception given to the missionaries by the Nestorians. The work has already been blessed, and offers a useful field for earnest laborers.

2. *Memoirs of* THOMAS FOWELL BUXTON; *embracing a Historical Sketch of Emancipation in the West Indies, and of the Niger Expedition for the Suppression of the Slave Trade.* By MARY A. COLLIER.

This is an admirable little volume, and gives ample light on the early measures to suppress the slave trade.

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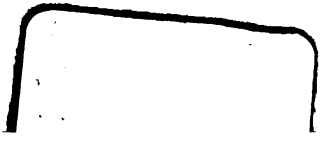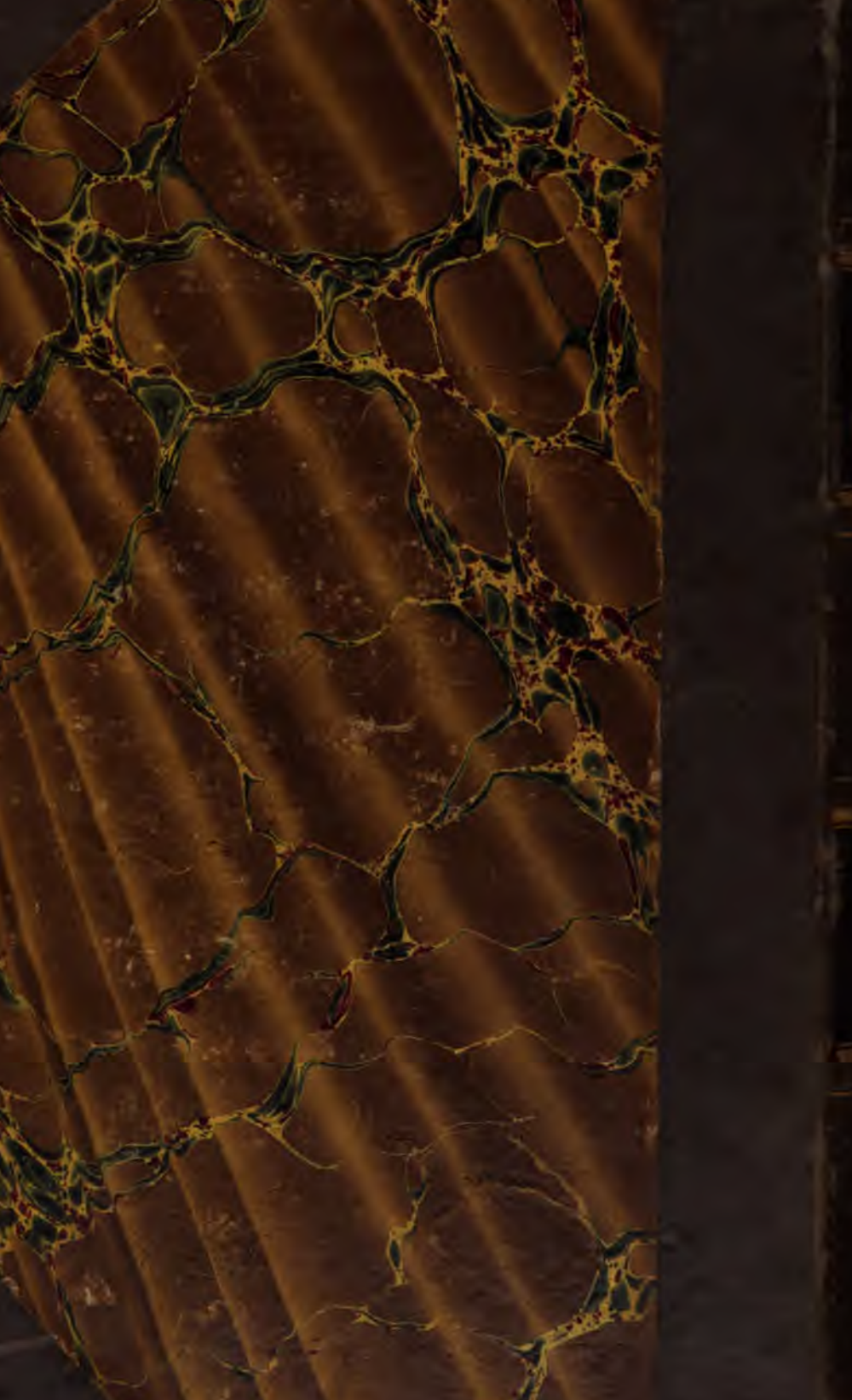
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